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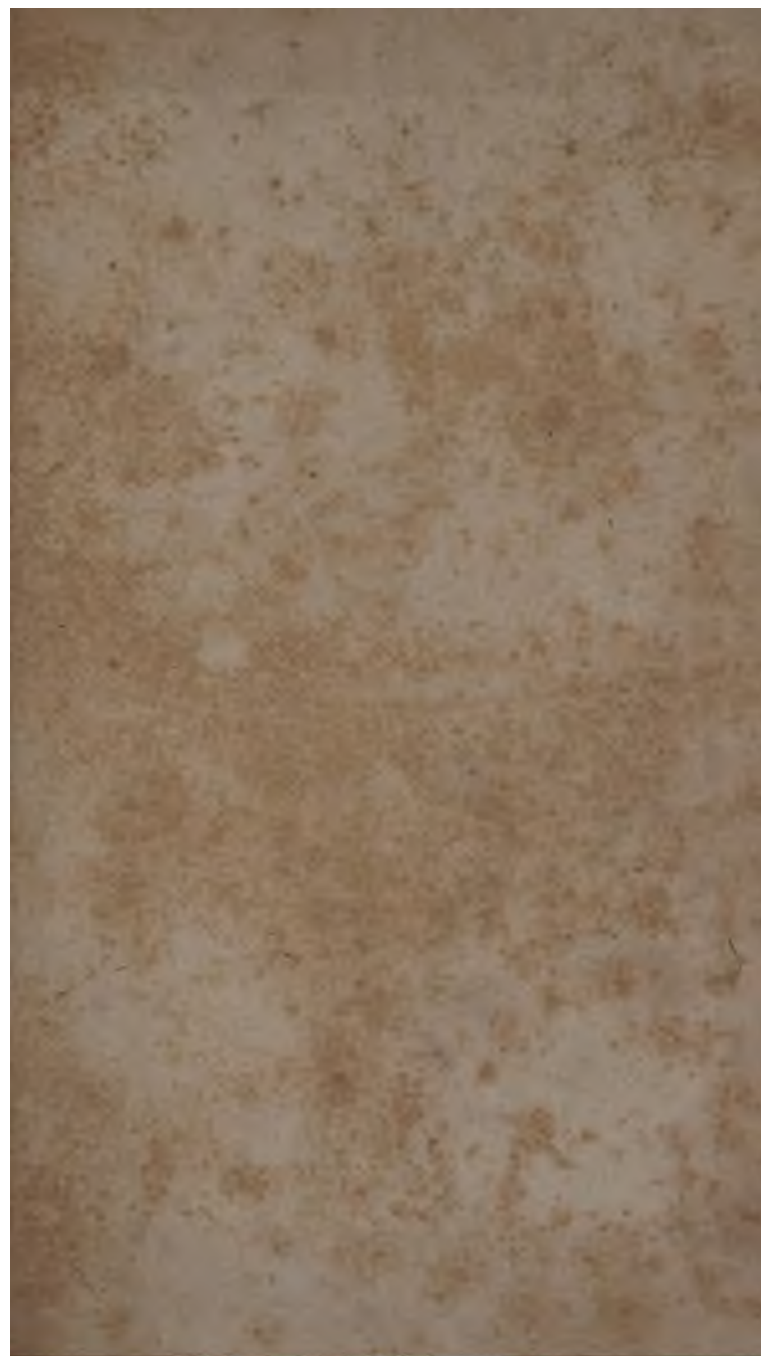




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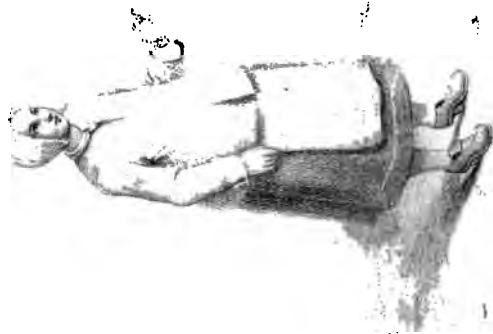
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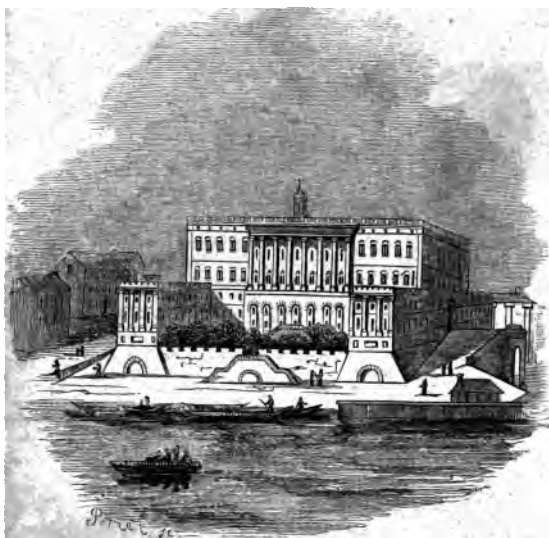






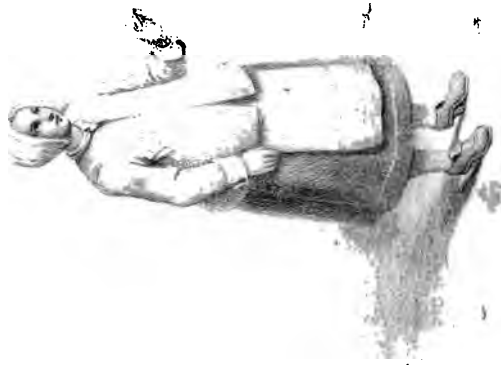
Dalecarlian Peasants.

VISIT
TO
NORTHERN EUROPE.



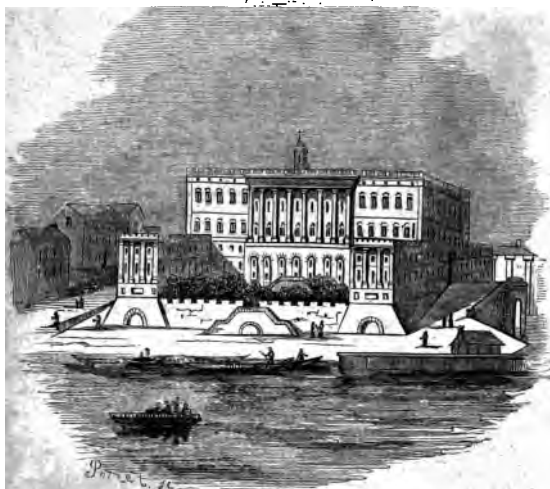
Palace at Stockholm—eastern front.

NEW-YORK:
JOHN S. TAYLOR & CO. PUBLISHERS.
1842.



• Dalecarlian Peasants.

V I S I T
TO
N O R T H E R N E U R O P E .



Palace at Stockholm—eastern front.

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1842.

VISIT
TO
NORTHERN EUROPE:

OR
SKETCHES
DESCRIPTIVE, HISTORICAL, POLITICAL AND MORAL,
OF
DENMARK, NORWAY, SWEDEN AND FINLAND,

AND THE
FREE CITIES OF HAMBURG AND LUBECK,

CONTAINING
NOTICES OF THE MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, ARTS AND SCIENCES, EDUCATION, LITERATURE, AND RELIGION, OF THOSE COUNTRIES AND CITIES.

BY ROBERT BAIRD.

WITH MAPS AND NUMEROUS ENGRAVINGS.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL II.

NEW YORK:
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1841.

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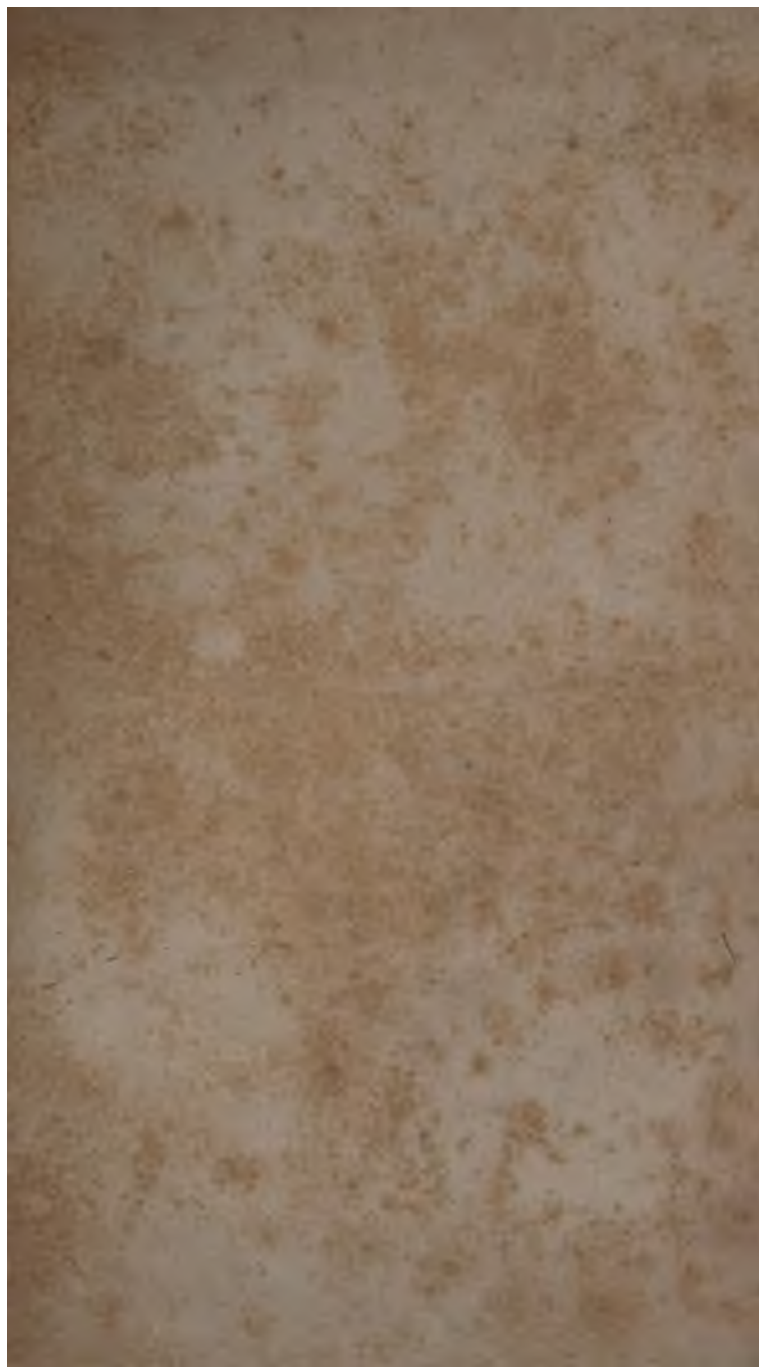
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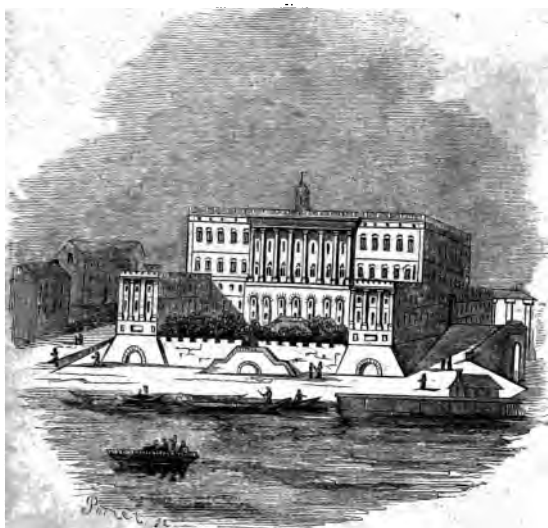
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VISIT
TO
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Palace at Stockholm—eastern front.

NEW-YORK:
JOHN S. TAYLOR & CO. PUBLISHERS.
1842.

there should be so much formality and minuteness in these police arrangements, in relation to the passports of those who are going from Denmark to Sweden. It seems to be a sort of relic of the ancient animosity which for centuries subsisted between the Danes and the Swedes, and which time cannot completely efface. A friend of ours was exceedingly irritated by these regulations, and did not hesitate to manifest his displeasure in the presence of the officials of the police. But this is all wrong. These men must discharge the duties of their office. They cannot help the matter; and it is one of the most unreasonable things in the world to blame them. In truth, there is but one way to get comfortably along in these things, and that is, to ascertain as clearly and as fully as possible, what are the requirements of each country and each city which one visits, and then to conform cheerfully and faithfully with them. For ourselves, we do not recollect to have exchanged an unkind word with a custom-house or police officer, in any country which we have traveled in; nor have we ever received an uncivil word from any one. We have long since learned that it is as inconsistent with comfort as it is with religion, to fret and distress ourselves and displease others, about the peculiar police laws of the countries which duty calls us to visit. There may be inconvenience, there may be annoying delay; but the evil only becomes augmented by impatience.

In quitting the Danish capital, we felt not a little pensive, for a season, in being called to part, perhaps for the last time, with not a few very agreeable friends, whose acquaintance we formed during the two visits which we made to it. In their society the time passed very pleasantly away. We are greatly indebted to them, not only for the kind hospitality of their houses, which we have been permitted to enjoy, but also for the valuable information which we have received from them, on very many important subjects; and we feel it to be a duty, in

making this general acknowledgment of the kindness of our Danish friends, not to omit to say, that we are also under obligations to Mr. Woodside, the American Chargé d'Affaires, and to Mr. George Ryan, an Irish merchant, and father of the present American consul.

As on arriving, so in departing, the steamer did not come up to the wharf, but lay off in the stream; and the passengers were compelled to go out to her in a small boat. At the hour appointed, the little cannon announced that every thing was ready, the bell was rung, and soon we were in motion, and turned our faces towards the north. A crowd of people stood on the wharf, exchanging with our passengers the last adieus, by waving their white handkerchiefs. In a few moments we passed up between the citadel of Frederikshavn and the fortress of the Trekroner, and found ourselves on the expanse of the Sound. During almost an hour the houses and steeples of Copenhagen were in sight, peering over the trees which grow on the ramparts; but gradually they subsided, and finally disappeared from our view.

After leaving Copenhagen, our course was almost due north to Elsinour, or Helsingør as the Danes call it, distant about twenty-four English miles by land, and the same by water from the capital. The width of this arm of the Baltic, or of the Sound as it is commonly called, is said to be twenty English miles opposite Copenhagen. But it grows rapidly narrower, as one approaches Elsinour, where it does not exceed three miles. The Swedish coast, especially as one advances northward, is more bold than that of the Danish. Several villages appear on the margin of the Sound on that side, the most important of which is Landskrona. The Danish shore is most beautiful throughout its whole extent. It is nothing but a succession of fine lawns, and verdant forests, with many a tasteful villa, in the midst of a charming garden, filled with dabbias, tulips, carnations, and other sweet flowers. The land, as

it recedes from the water's edge, becomes high and undulating. Take it all in all, we do not know where so delightful a landscape can be found as the whole coast on this side presents, from Copenhagen up to Elsinour. Many fine abodes owned by wealthy citizens of the metropolis, who pass their summers at them, adorn its entire extent. When we were here in 1836, we spent a day at those of Mr. Hambro, then the United States' Consul at Copenhagen, and of Chevalier Pedersen, formerly the Danish Minister at Washington. Nor shall we ever forget either the amenity of those beautiful seats, and the gardens which surrounded them, or the courtesy and kindness of their proprietors. The former was six miles, and the latter four, from the capital.

As we pursued our course we passed over the spot where the English committed to the waters the bodies of those of their countrymen who were slain in the battle of the Baltic, there to await that "Day for which all other days were made."

At the distance of about fourteen miles from Copenhagen we passed the Island of Huen, which is famous for having been the abode of Tycho Brahé, and the scene of his astronomical labors during many years. This island is about six miles from the coast of Zealand and three from that of Sweden. It is six miles in circumference, and rises into the form of an elevated hill, whose summit is a plane. The height of this island is considerable, but it is far from deserving the name of a mountain, as some writers have asserted. It is higher than the coasts on either side of the Sound. It was here that Tycho Brahé erected those large establishments and placed those vast astronomical instruments, which were the wonder of the world at that day, and which have not been surpassed, for size, if not for costliness, by any others of the sort, from that day till the present.

"The observatory," says Dr. Brewster, in his *Life of*

Tycho Brahé,* "was surrounded by a rampart, each face of which was three hundred feet long. About the middle of each face the rampart became a semicircle, the inner diameter of which was ninety feet. The height of the rampart was twenty-two feet, and its thickness at the base twenty. Its four angles corresponded exactly with the four cardinal points, and at the north and south angles were erected turrets, of which one was a printing-house, and the other the residence of the servants. Gates were erected at the east and west angles, and above them were apartments for the reception of strangers. Within the rampart was a shrubbery, with about three hundred varieties of trees, and at the centre of each semicircular part of the rampart was a bower or summer-house. The shrubbery surrounded the flower-garden, which was terminated within by a circular wall of about forty-five feet high, which enclosed a more elevated area, in the centre of which stood the principal building in the observatory, and from which four paths led to the above-mentioned angles, with as many doors for entering the garden.

"The principal building was about sixty feet square. The doors were placed on the east and west sides; and to the north and south fronts were attached two round towers, whose inner diameter was about thirty-two feet, and which formed the observatories, which had windows in their roof that could be opened towards any part of the heavens. The accommodations for the family were numerous and splendid. Under the observatory, in the south tower, were the museum and library, and below this again was a laboratory in a subterraneous crypt, containing sixteen furnaces of various kinds. Beneath this was a well forty feet deep, from which water was distributed by syphons to every part of the building.

* *Martyrs of Science, or the Lives of Galileo, Tycho Brahé, and Kepler*, by Sir David Brewster, pages 139—141.—Harpers' edition.

"Besides the principal building, there were other two situated without the rampart, one to the north, containing a workshop for the construction of astronomical and other instruments, and the other to the south, which was occupied as a sort of farm-house. These buildings cost the King of Denmark 100,000 rix dollars (£20,000,) and Tycho is said to have expended upon them a similar sum.

"As the towers could not accommodate the instruments which Tycho required for his observations, he found it necessary to erect, on the hill about sixty paces to the south of Uraniburg, a subterranean observatory, in which he might place his larger instruments, which required to be firmly fixed, and to be protected from the wind and the weather. This observatory, which he called Stiernberg, or the mountain of the stars, consisted of several crypts, separated by solid walls, and to these there was a subterranean passage from the laboratory in Uraniburg. The various buildings which Tycho erected were built in a regular style of architecture, and were highly ornamented, not only with external decorations, but with the statues and pictures of the most distinguished astronomers, from Hipparchus and Ptolemy down to Copernicus, and with inscriptions and poems in honor of astronomers."

The history of this astronomer is remarkable in many respects. He was born on the 14th of December, 1546, at Knudstorp, the estate of his ancestors, which is situated near Helsingborg, in Scania,—a country which was then under the government of Denmark, but which is now the southern part of the kingdom of Sweden. He was of a noble but poor family. He was the eldest son and second child of a family of five sons and five daughters. His uncle, George Brahé, having no children, adopted Tycho, and brought him up as his son. At an early age he showed a strong desire for learning, and an utter aversion to the profession of arms, to which his father desired that he

should devote himself. Having finished his preparatory studies, he entered, in April, 1559, the University of Copenhagen, where he spent several years. There he began to display the strong bias of his mind for astronomical studies. When he had completed his course at Copenhagen, he was sent, in February, 1562, to Leipsic to pursue the study of jurisprudence. There he devoted himself more than ever to astronomy, and entirely neglected the study of the law.

Having spent three years at Leipsic, he was about to set out to make the tour of Germany, when the death of his uncle recalled him to his native country, to take possession of the fortune which had been left him. But his astronomical pursuits gave great dissatisfaction to all his relations, except his maternal uncle, Steno Bille, who had discernment to appreciate his genius and his aims. Having arranged his domestic affairs, he set out again for Germany, where he resided first (1566) at Wittemberg, whence he removed upon the appearance of the plague at that place, to Rostock, in the Duchy of Mecklenburg, where he resided during the years 1567 and 1568. Here he had a quarrel with a countryman of his own, Maderupius Pasbergius, a nobleman, which led to a duel. They fought instantly, at night, with the sword, and his adversary, at a blow, cut off the whole of the front of his nose! An artificial one of silver and gold, which was said to have formed a good substitute for the original, was cemented upon his face.

From Rostock, Tycho went to Augsburg, where he spent some time, and found friends, particularly Paul Hainzel, who encouraged his astronomical pursuits. In 1571, he returned to his native land, whither his fame had preceded him, and secured him a warm reception. There his uncle, Steno Bille, gave him a house, and encouraged him not only in his astronomical studies, but also in those

which related to chemistry, to which science he had begun to direct his mind. In 1573 he married a peasant girl of the village of Knustrop, and remained somewhat settled, pursuing his studies, until the spring of 1575, when he set out once more for Germany. During this period he delivered a course of lectures, at the request of the king, to several young Danish nobles, who desired to be allowed to place themselves under his instruction. In his tour, he visited Cassel, and made the acquaintance of the Landgrave of Hesse Cassel, who was a friend and patron of the "heavenly science." He then visited Switzerland, and fixed upon Basle, as the place, as he fondly hoped, of his future home. After visiting Italy, he returned by way of Ratisbon, where he was at the coronation of the Emperor Rudolph, to his native country.

In the meanwhile, such had been his fame, that the king of his own country, Frederick II., resolved not to let Denmark lose the honor of having a man of so great celebrity established within her limits. This led him to propose to Tycho to remain. And never was a philosopher more handsomely treated by a sovereign, than he was by Frederick II. The island of Huen, which was fertile, producing all sorts of grain and excellent horses, cattle, sheep, together with deer, hares, rabbits and partridges in abundance, was given to him, for his future abode.

Here he erected the immense structures of which we have already given some account, and which cost him \$100,000. He called his palace, if we may term it such, Uraniburg. The king gave him a pension of 2,000 dollars, besides an estate in Norway, and made him a canon of the Cathedral at Roeskilde, an office which yielded him \$1,000. Tycho resided twenty years on the island of Huen, prosecuting his astronomical labors with great diligence and enthusiasm. Soon he possessed a vast collection of astronomical instruments, of every description.

And great numbers of distinguished men from all parts of Germany and other countries, came to see him, among whom may be mentioned, Ulric, Duke of Mecklenburg.

In the beginning of April, Frederick II. died, in the fifty-fourth year of his age, and the 29th of his reign. This was a fatal blow to Tycho's hopes. His son and successor was Christian IV., who was then only 11 years old. Under the regency which governed the country during his minority, the enemies of Tycho began to cabal against him. Still nothing was openly done. Remarks began to be made against the throwing away of so much money, as was supposed to be the case, in granting him his large annual pension. In 1590, Tycho was visited by James VI., of Scotland, who spent several days with him, charmed with his society as well as his knowledge. The year following, Christian IV., then in his 14th year, also visited Uraniburg, accompanied by his councillors and many of the high nobility.*

But at length his enemies, at the head of whom was the president of the King's council, Walchendorp, prevailed, and about the year 1597, he was deprived of his canonry, his estate in Norway, and his pension. In this matter, the mind of the young king had become poisoned by the misrepresentations of those around him. The next year Tycho removed to Copenhagen to reside, and abandoned his Uraniburg. Towards the end of that year he went to live near Hamburg; two years afterwards, he went to Prague in Bohemia, at the invitation of the Emperor Rudolph. There he soon after settled, and opened his observatory, and thither he brought his instruments from Denmark. But

* It was on this visit to Uraniburg, that Christian IV. presented Tycho with a gold chain and his picture, as represented in Höjer's painting, in the Exchange at Copenhagen, and not to Prague as we have inadvertently stated in another place (chapter IX.) of this work.

he died on the 24th of October, 1601, when he was only fifty-four years and ten months old. He was buried in the principal church of Prague, that of Tiers, where a monument has been erected to his memory. Such was the end of this great man, who, although his theory was wrong, by which the absurd doctrine was taught, that the sun and all the planets revolve around the earth, yet did very much to promote the science of Astronomy. His mind was not a little tinctured with the love of the study of astrology, as connected, in his opinion, with astronomy. At least this appears to have been the case in his younger days. He was, however, a firm believer in Christianity, and his life was beyond reproach. There are no remains, of any consequence, of his vast establishment on the island of Huen.

At length we arrived at Elsinour, where our steamer was detained some time, and was visited by a custom-house officer, to make the usual inquiries which are made in the case of all vessels which pass and repass this Sound.

The city of Elsinour contains about 7,000 inhabitants. It is a pleasant place. Many English people reside here for trade, and one hears the English language at every turn, in this little city. Opposite to Elsinour, on the eastern or Swedish side of the strait, lies the pleasant-looking town of Helsingborg. A steam ferry-boat crosses at regular periods between the two cities. The width of the Sound at this point is rather less than three English miles, as has already been stated.

The most important object of interest in Elsinour is the old castle or château of Cronburg, with its turrets, which was erected by Frederick II., after the designs of Tycho Brahé. It is a large irregularly-shaped pile, of the Gothic style, which has been employed for various purposes,—and has been a château, a garrison, and a state-prison. The rampart which surrounds it is strong on the



CRONBURG CASTLE.

This Palace, or Castle, stands in Elsineur, on the Sound, at its narrowest point. It was erected by Frederick II, after the designs of Tycho Brahé.



side next to the water. It is low, but well arranged for doing great injury, with long guns and well managed, to vessels which ~~would~~ attempt to pass without permission. Admirals Parker and Nelson passed it, however, with a strong wind, as also did the Dutch Admiral Opdam, in the year 1658. It is probably better arranged and appointed now than it was at either of those epochs. In this château the celebrated Caroline Matilda was confined for a season, for her supposed criminal intimacy with Struensee, whose case we have already mentioned. On a pane of glass, in a window of this castle, she wrote her name.

At a short distance northward from Elsinour, is the royal Château of Marienlyst, (Mary's Delight,) commanding a fine view of the Sound, and of the opening Cattegat. This château is one of the most pleasant in its situation and construction which we have ever seen. It displays great neatness, just proportion, and refined taste. The view from the top of it is extremely beautiful. The city of Elsinour and the château of Cronburg lie just to the right, and in full view; the Sound, covered with vessels, either lying at anchor, or spreading their white wings to the winds; the coast of Sweden, in the distant east, ~~and the~~ rocky hills and mountains stretching away to the north and northeast; whilst the rich fields and sweet forests of Zealand, with Lake Esrom in the distance, form the scene on the western side. The gardens around this château are also delightful, but not very extensive. The whole of this royal possession—château and gardens—is extremely agreeable. It was a favorite residence of Caroline Matilda, to whom we have just referred.

In the gardens of this château a walk is pointed out as Prince Hamlet's garden, and a heap of stones indicates what is called his grave. These things are shown with great care to English travelers, and are conserved with

special reference to their benefit. But the ~~English~~ cicerones do not more than half understand their business, else they would be able to point out the exact localities where all the details of the tragic story occurred. At present they seem to be wholly ignorant of the spot where Prince Hamlet's father was murdered by his brother Claudius. But no doubt they will be able before long to say which was the very tree beneath which the monarch was sleeping, when his unnatural brother stole upon him;

"With juice of cursed hebenon,* in a vial,

And in the porches of his ear did pour

The leprous distilment,"

and thus accomplished the "devilish deed" of his destruction. As to the case of poor Ophelia, we believe that some of them are well-informed, for they can show the "brook," and the "willow-tree," which were the scene and the means of her disastrous "muddy death." All these marvels are indicated with due confidence to our English friends, as well as to all others who desire to know any thing of the scene of a most wonderful effort of the tragic muse. But what spoils all this beautiful work of the Danish cicerones is the fact, that the whole plot, scene, and every thing connected with it, never existed, as there is good reason to believe, in Zealand or in Denmark at all, nor any where else, save in the poet's imagination! There is no sufficient proof that there ever was a prince in Denmark of the name of Hamlet. At any rate, if there was, it was in Jutland, and not in Zealand, that he lived. The whole story rests on the authority of Saxo Grammaticus.

Miele, in his collection of Danish traditions, relates the story of the Ghost of Holger Danske, (or Ogier the Dane, as the French writers have called him,) which haunted the

* Henbane.

subterranean rooms of this castle. A convict was offered his pardon if he would visit the particular chamber where so much noise had often been heard at night. He did so. The door opened at his touch. He found Holger and his chiefs seated at a table, leaning their heads on their arms. Their beards had grown down through the table. Holger rose up, and by doing so his beard split the table as it tore itself from it. He extended his hand to the convict, who refused to take it, but who on his part held out to Holger a piece of iron, which the ghost indented with his fingers, saying: "It is well, I am glad that there are yet *men* in Denmark." Many other remarkable stories are told among the Danish peasants, respecting this old castle.

It is at Elsinour that the vessels which enter the Baltic from other countries, or pass out of it, are required to lower their top-gallant sails, and pay a duty to the Danish government. It is wonderful that this usage, which has scarcely anything but antiquity to justify it, is submitted to by the other nations. If Denmark held both the coasts of this channel, as she once did, and as Sweden did also for a short time, there might be some sort of pretext for this toll. Or if it were exacted, according to something like a proper estimate, for the maintaining, on the part of Denmark, of the light-houses on the Sound, (which is indeed the only pretext, we believe, which is now offered,) it might be submitted to. But this is far from being the case.

The number of ships which pass from the North Sea into the Baltic, and from the Baltic into the North Sea, by this Sound, varies from ten to twelve thousand per annum. The tax or toll collected from each of them depends on the value of the cargo. Many of them pay very little—some of them pay a great deal. The American ships pay the most of all, in proportion to their number. Of the ten or twelve thousand vessels, of all descrip-

tions, which pass the Sound in the course of each year, not more than seventy-five or eighty are American, or rather have been such during the last few years. In 1823 the number was 166. And these seventy-five or eighty ships pay a duty—upon the average of a few years past—of two hundred and sixty thousand dollars, as we have been informed by Mr. Woodside. Even single American ships have been known to pay at Elsinour, at one time, as much as ten thousand dollars!

The amount which Denmark receives annually from this toll, varies, of course, with the number of ships which pass the Sound. It is commonly estimated, in round numbers, at a million of dollars of our money. According to a recent statement, it was £200,335. It is believed by some to be much more than is stated in the Danish public documents. This is a large sum, and forms a very important item in the limited revenue of this kingdom; but for which nothing like an equivalent is rendered, in any way whatever. Nor does this sum, great as it is, give a just idea of the oppressive nature of the Sound-duties. The vessels are often detained a long time at Elsinour. Cargoes of particular descriptions, such as sugar from the West Indies, are often compelled to be landed, the leather hoops taken off the boxes, and iron ones put on—all at the expense of the owner of the cargo—under pretext, we suppose, of keeping the yellow fever out of the Baltic, or for some other equally preposterous reason. How long this state of things will be borne, we cannot say; but we do think that something ought to be done to put an end to it.

Our course, after entering the Cattegat, at Elsinour, was along the Swedish coast, and within sight of it, during the greater part of our way to Gottenburg. Many villages and towns could be seen in the distance. At the distance of some twenty miles from Elsinour, the coast began to

assume another appearance, and hills of considerable height, composed of naked rocks, began to mark their dark outline on the blue horizon. Early in the morning of the day after our leaving Copenhagen, we entered the city of Gottenburg. As we shall have occasion to speak of this city when we come to give some notices of our journey in Sweden, we proceed to state, that after having stayed there until two o'clock, P. M., we resumed our voyage; and soon we passed along the coast until we were opposite to the strong fortress of *Marstrand*, when we were fairly in the upper end of the Skaggerack, or the portion of the North Sea which runs up to the Cattegat.

Along this coast, but not visible to us, stand some places which figure greatly in the histories of Denmark and Sweden—such as Frederikstein, Frederikstadt, and Frederikshald. It was at the last named place that Charles XII., king of Sweden, was killed, by a ball from the “petty fortress” which he was besieging, and which was in the hands of the Danes. The fortress was for a long time a strong one, rendered so by art as well as by position; it is, however, now falling into a state of dilapidation, through neglect. The spot where “Sweden’s madman” was killed, is indicated by a small marble monument. The grey granite on which he fell, and which constituted his bed of death, forms a more enduring monument than any which human hands can form. The town of Frederikshald is small, and no way worthy of mention, save for its historical associations.

At a very early hour of the morning of the succeeding day, we entered the small and rock-hidden port of Frederiksværn, a town which stands on the western side of the wide gulf or fiord of Christiania, and at the point where that gulf joins the Skaggerack. The entrance into this little harbor is between the mainland, and a high rocky island, and so narrow that it would seem almost impossible

for the largest ships to pass through it. On the eastern side, the port is protected by islands from storms, which sweep across the wide expanse of the gulf. But the harbor is not a very safe one. When the south wind blows very hard and long, the swell of the sea, forcing its way between the islands, becomes very great in the harbor, and often carries away the vessels which lie there at anchor. Frederiksværn is not a place of much importance. It is, however, one of the stations for the Norwegian navy; and it has a navy-yard, chiefly for the building of gun-boats, a considerable number of which lie here, on the stocks, under the protection of houses built over them.

This little city, which is literally rock-bound on all sides, save from the water, may have a population of some twelve or fifteen hundred souls. Its houses are chiefly built of wood, and covered with brown tiles. Its population is almost wholly engaged in sea-faring business, and many are fishermen. We stayed here a few hours, and then leaving the Prinds Carl, we embarked on the small steam-boat *Constitutionen*, and set off on our voyage up the bay of Christiania. Our steam-boat soon passed out of the rocky cove of Frederiksværn, and entered the broad expanse of the bay, at a mile or two from its junction with the Skaggerack. Our course thence was northward up through the many islands which crowd this bay, from its mouth up to its termination, at the city of Christiania, a distance of not less than seventy English miles. Through the whole of this distance, the scene changes at every step. At first, there is the wide expanse of the bay at its mouth, with the towns of Frederiksværn and Laurvig on the western side. Far off, on the eastern side, but higher up, and almost hidden from sight, are some villages, on the islands which form that side of the estuary. After the progress of some ten or twelve miles, the ship channel lies between islands so numerous, and so close together, that

to the eye of the spectator it would seem impossible to get through them; and, in fact, he is every moment looking for the passage, and almost ready to conclude that there is none, when suddenly it opens in one direction or another, and the steam-boat holds on her way. Again the bay expands, and is free from islands, at least in its central part, for a considerable distance. After a while it contracts again, and so it continues, varying continually in size, until it comes to an end at Christiania.

At first, and especially in the neighborhood of Frederiksværn and Laurivg, the grey rocks of gneiss and granite which compose the sides and summits of the hills on the islands, are, as far as the eye can reach, destitute of every thing like vegetation. Nothing, literally, in the shape of bush, or tree, is anywhere seen. In all directions, the scene is one boundless extent of water and naked rocks, save that here and there, on the mainland, and after you have advanced some way, on the large islands also, you see a cottage, with its brown-tiled roof, peering through a ravine or valley in the rocks; and by the aid of a small patch of green grass, or a little garden occasionally, the ravine between the rocky summits is wide, and reaches a considerable distance into the interior of the main-land, or of an island, and permits you to see, at the distant end of it, a number of scattered cottages, with their dark-red roofs—thus giving a kaleidoscopic view which is in the highest degree enchanting, amid this rocky desert. As you ascend the gulf the rocks begin to put on a mantle of green, which is not sufficient to conceal their hoary sides and summits. There you first see the Norwegian pine, but of so stunted a size as to give you no just idea of the vast forests of that country, which have for ages constituted one of its most important staples. The habitations of man thicken on the scene. You pass the pleasant villages of Tönsberg,* As-

* Near to Tönsberg is an extensive manufacture of salt, at a

gaarstrand, Homestrand, and Sande, on the western shore, and those of Moss, Soon, and Dröbak on the eastern. Not only do you have villages and scattered houses in all directions, to give life to the prospect, but also vessels of all sizes, either spreading their sails to the winds, or lying at anchor before some little port. Sometimes, also, you see their naked masts and yards over some low island, as they lie in a narrow strait, either undergoing repairs or waiting for a cargo. Sometimes you see three or four, or more, lying far in one of the innumerable fiords or sounds which run up from the main bay into the interior mainland, or separate the islands one from another.

The day was extremely pleasant, and our company of passengers, which had been considerable from Copenhagen, and sensibly augmented at Gottenburg, became greater and greater, as the boat passed from one side of the bay

little village called Walloe, and oftener Saline. The process here pursued is the same as that which is adopted at Katwyk, at the mouth of the Rhine, in Holland. At Walloe a great battery of fascines, or bundles of small rods, laid compactly, answers the purpose of causing a rapid evaporation of the water. This battery of fascines of bushwood, or small rods and twigs, is about forty feet high, twenty wide, and nearly half a mile in length. The sea water is first pumped up, by wind-mills, into large cisterns, where it is mixed with Liverpool rock salt. From these cisterns it is pumped up into troughs which distribute it along the top or upper surface of the entire battery of fascines, through which it drips down, until it is collected again in troughs at the bottom. In this way the watery particles are evaporated to such a degree that nothing remains to be done but to reduce the saline fluid to a state of crystallization by boiling it a short time. In this way vast expense and labor are saved. These works, when Norway belonged to Denmark, were owned and worked, at a dead loss, by the Danish government. The Norwegian government, soon after its organization, sold them to a company which carries them on with decided profit. Another proof this, of the importance of leaving such things to individual enterprise, rather than carry them on through the agency of government.

to the other, in her zig-zag course ; and long before we reached Christiania we began to wonder where any more could be placed. Still they came, and still the crowd on the decks of the little steamer grew denser, until we fairly reached the harbor of Christiania, and, rounding the rocky promontory on which the castle and fortress stand, came to anchor in the inner and hidden cove which lay behind it. In all, there were nearly two hundred persons who reached the capital. Many had also, from time to time, landed at the villages and ports which we had passed. With the exception of two Englishmen, a few Germans, and ourselves, all were Norwegians ; and we must say, that their appearance and their conduct made a very favorable impression on our minds. Their manners were remarkably urbane, and indicated much benevolence of heart, united with great simplicity in the mode of its expression. Indeed, the Norwegians, like the Swedes and Danes, are a very civil and polite people. Take them in the mass, they will compare well, in this respect, with the French ; whilst they have a vast deal more of sincerity and honesty in their professions and in their acts, than the mass of the Gallic nation. Those of them who belong to the higher classes may be called handsome. Like their neighbors of the Scandinavian race, the Swedes and Danes, they have, generally speaking, fair complexions, blue eyes, and blond hair. A greater number of the gentlemen, however, have hair and whiskers of a reddish color, than one sees in Sweden and Denmark ; a fact which we fear must detract vastly, in the opinion of some of our readers, from their good appearance, to say nothing of beauty. The dress of all the well-educated classes in Norway is the same as that which prevails in England and France, and the fashions of the Rue Vivienne and the Boulevards of Paris travel as certainly, if not as rapidly, up into these northern regions as they do southward into Spain and Italy,

or westward to America, by packet-ships and steam-boats. It is the lower classes in Norway, as in every country on the continent of Europe, occupying retired situations, and mixing little with mankind out of their own restricted limits, who retain any other peculiarity of costume than what arises from an awkward manner in the making or wearing.

Christiania stands, as we have already said, at the head of the bay of that name, and at the distance of seventy or seventy-five miles from the Skaggerack. Its shape is somewhat semi-circular, a part of it lying at the head of the bay, and a part stretching along the western side of it. A promontory, with a rocky elevation in the centre, projects out into the bay from about the centre of the western part of the city, and conceals from the view, as one approaches by the water, the upper or northern portion of it. Advantage has been taken of the position and shape of this promontory, to fortify this place in a very strong manner. The whole population, including some scattered villages which bound the city in various directions, exceeds 25,000 souls.

From what we have said, it will be inferred that the city is divided into two parts by the promontory which we have just described. This is not exactly so; for the two parts of the city unite on the level space, where the peninsula joins the mainland. The streets in all parts of the city, and especially in the newer portions, are wide and straight. The houses are mostly of two stories high; though many are only one—a fact which makes this city form a striking contrast with those of Copenhagen, Kiel and Hamburg. Another point of contrast is to be found in the fact that not a few houses in Christiania are built of stone, of which there is certainly enough in Norway to make all the cities in the world of the same material. Those houses which are built of brick, or of wooden frames and filled in with brick, are stuccoed and painted a white or lead color. The streets are generally well paved,

though the side-walks are too much like those of Copenhagen, composed of round or uneven stones, instead of flat ones, or bricks. Every part of the city is well supplied with excellent water, which is brought by pipes from one of the many streams which come rolling down through the ravines in the hills which environ the city, and then hasten across the narrow intervening plains to fall into the bay.

This city was founded by Christian IV., king of Denmark, in the year 1624. The cause of its being built was the destruction of the old town of *Opslœ*, which stood in this vicinity, and which has since been rebuilt, and forms a distant suburb of the capital. The Bishop of Christiania actually resides at *Opslœ* at this day. The favorable situation of Christiania, together with the fact that it is now the political as well as the literary capital of the kingdom of Norway, gives it great advantages. Its population has doubled since 1815. It contains but few buildings which are remarkable for their appearance. Utility has been more observed than show in the erection of the public edifices of this city. The new palace for the governor or viceroy, is a fine edifice. It stands on a commanding site in the western part of the town. It is not yet finished. The castle and fortifications are well worthy of a visit from the curious traveler. The Custom House is a small, simple, but convenient building. The Parliament-House, or place where the *Storthing* now meets, is a plain building, of two stories, standing in the centre of the city. Opposite to it, in the same street, stands the Military School. The University-House is a plain edifice, also of two stories, where are to be seen fine cabinets of minerals, and of instruments and models used formerly in the College for Mining at Kongsberg, but now suppressed. In 1829, a collection of Scandinavian antiquities was commenced which has already become respectable. The library

of this University contains 120,000 volumes. It is not, however, a well-selected one, having in it too many books which are of but little value, as we have been informed. Still it is a good one in many respects, and bids fair at no distant day to be an excellent one, as the additions which are annually made to it are selected with great judgment by the excellent professor to whom this duty is assigned. This University was founded in 1811, and has about 600 students. We shall speak of it again, in another place.

Besides the places which we have just mentioned, there are the Royal Norwegian School, for Cadets in the land service; Institute of Commerce; School for Drawing; and the Cathedral-Church; which are the chief buildings—none of which are remarkable. This city has several literary and philanthropic societies, such as the Geological Society, and the Society for the Encouragement of the National Industry. It is well supplied with schools, and with beneficent establishments. One of the best philanthropic institutions which we have visited is a school, where some 50 or 60 girls of the poorest families are instructed gratuitously in every branch of knowledge useful to them, during the day, and where such as have no homes of their own, live until they find places. The specimens of their work—sewing, weaving, &c., which we saw, were in the highest degree creditable to them. In another department of the establishment was an Infant-School, for children of the same humble class. Here we found more than 50 children, all well clad, prosecuting their studies, or engaged from time to time in their infantile gambols, as happy apparently as the day is long. A sweet spirit of religion pervades the whole house and all its manifold instruction. It is visited almost daily by some good pastors, and pious young men, who give regular instruction in the sacred Scriptures to these poor children and youth. The blessing of God has abundantly

rested on this establishment, which was founded, we ought to add, by an excellent lady of Christiania, who still lives to witness the good which her piety and benevolence have originated.

The environs of Christiania are really charming. In all directions, the plain which stretches from the bay up to the encircling hills is cultivated like a garden, and studded with sweet villas, surrounded by clumps of trees. The country-seats (called *Lökke* in the Norwegian tongue) of *Bogstadt*, (occupied recently by Count *Wesel de Jarlsberg*, the Governor or Viceroy of Norway,) *Frogner* and *Ulevold* may be mentioned as peculiarly agreeable and beautiful. Many others might be indicated as being scarcely less pleasant than these, if it were necessary.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY OF NORWAY.

Early chronicles of Norway unworthy of credit—Numerous Jarls in the early times of that kingdom—Harald Haarfager consolidates the kingdom—The expatriated kings and chiefs betake themselves to other countries—Harald rules wisely—His sons Erik and Hakon—Beneficent reign of Hakon—Olaf Tryggvason—His adventurous life—He established Christianity in Norway—Defeated by the Danes—Olaf II.—Expelled by Canute the Great—His son Magnus expels Svend, son of Canute, from Norway—Magnus the Good—Harald Hardrada—Loses his life in England—Magnus III.—Sigurd—His visit to the Holy Land—His return through Constantinople—Magnus IV.—A century of confusion in the history of Norway—Disputes with the Roman See—Sverre, the greatest monarch of his day—His early life and adventures—Hakon II., a good king—Magnus VI., one of the best kings of Norway—Magnus Smek—His son, Hakon VI., marries Margaret, daughter of Valdemar Atterdag—Their son Olaf wears the united crowns of Norway, Sweden and Denmark—Norway remained united to Denmark from 1380 until 1814—Is now a constituent part of the United Kingdom of Sweden and Norway.

1. NORWAY BEFORE THE INTRODUCTION OF CHRISTIANITY.

THE Norwegian Chronicles relate that the first king who ruled over the entire country called by the name of Norway, was Seming, a son of Odin, and that the progeny of this oriental warrior-god was quite numerous in that portion of Scandinavia. The first mortal, according to this fruitful source of fictitious events, was Nor, whose posterity reigned over some seven or eight separate districts. But passing by all this legendary history—from which we learn one solitary fact, namely, that the country of Norway was, during many centuries of the early times, governed by innumerable petty Jarls or Princes, whose dominions, as well as authority, were of inconsiderable extent,—we come to the reign of Harald Haarfager, who

first combined the various tribes, among whom the country was divided, into one nation, by reducing their kings or Jarls to a state of vassalage, in the latter part of the ninth century.

This prince, so celebrated in Norwegian story, was also a descendant from the Odinic loins, but not by the family of Seming. He was a scion of the Ynglings, or the Swedish branch of the family of Odin. The last of that sacred dynasty in Sweden was Olaf Trætelia, who, in the beginning of the seventh century of the Christian era, was banished from the throne of that country; and taking refuge in the portion of the kingdom bordering on Norway, he established a petty dominion, which gradually extended itself westward until it comprised the southern part, if not the whole, of the Norwegian territory. Harald Haarfager was the seventh in lineal descent from this Swedish exile of the house of Odh.* His name is greatly distinguished in the annals of Norway. He conquered, in the early part of his reign, all the hitherto independent princes of the entire country. In a great naval battle, fought in the year 875, in the Bay of Hafur's Fiord, now called Stavanger Fiord, he overthrew the combined princes or jarls of the southwestern portion of the country. Many of the defeated chieftains quitted the country and fled to the Shet-

* The following is a list of the Norwegian kings, in the order in which they reigned, from Olaf Trætelia until the introduction of Christianity in that country.

	DIED, A. C.		DIED, A. C.
Olaf Trætelia,	640	Erik Blodæxe,	940
Halfdan Huitben,	700	Hakon the Good,	963
Eystein,	730	Harald Graafeld,	977
Halfdan Milde,	784	Hakon Jarl,	995
Gudrod Mikillati,	824	Olaf Tryggvason,	1000
Olaf Geirstada,	840	Olaf the Saint,	1030
Halfdan Svart,	863	Svend Knutson,	1035
Harald Haarfager,	934	Magnus the Good,	1047

land and Orkney Islands, as well as to the coasts of Scotland and Ireland. Thither Harald Haarfager pursued them, say the same chronicles, and subdued those islands, and rendered all Scotland north of the Grampian hills, and a portion of Ireland around Dublin, together with the Isle of Man, tributary to Norway, and subject to governors or earls appointed by Harald. Iceland and the Farøe Islands were discovered and colonized during his reign, and Normandy was conquered by the celebrated and daring Rolf Gaunger, (better known by the name of Duke Rollo,) and other chieftains under his authority, who fled from Norway to avoid death or servitude under his rigorous sway.

Harald adopted many regulations of a most salutary nature. Before his time, Norway had been subject to all sorts of oppression from the predatory incursions of its sea-kings, its island-kings, its cape-kings (or pirates who inhabited the promontories) and its Virkinr, or outright pirates of the sea, who were in the habit of landing and carrying off the cattle and other property of the inhabitants of the coasts. Harald abolished all these practices, and reduced the petty tyrants to good order, or drove them from the country.

This prince was acquainted with Athelstane, king of England, and greatly admired his character. He sent his son Hakon to be educated at the court of that monarch, where he became converted to Christianity, and was baptized into that faith. This event, as we shall see presently, was intimately connected with the introduction of the Christian religion into Norway.

Harald died in 934, leaving by his five wives a numerous progeny, male and female, from whom genealogists have reckoned the descent of most of the royal families in Europe.* His son Erik, in order to have no com-

* This has been especially attempted,—and it is said successfully—in a work by M. Von Kronigsward, entitled "*Harald Her-*

petitors for the throne, put to death the most of his brothers, and was hence called *Blodaxe*, or *Bloody-axe*. Weary of his oppression, the people at length drove off the fratricide, and placed his brother *Hakon* on the throne. *Erik* fled first to the *Orkney Islands*, where he was a sea-king, or marauder. *Athelstane* gave him *Northumberland*, upon condition that he should defend the coast against the *Danes* and other *Northmen*, and embrace Christianity. But at length his inveterate habits got the better of him. He took to the seas and to paganism again, and was slain in battle, with five other sea-kings, his allies, by *Edred*, king of England.

Hakon has obtained the title of *Good*, with the consent of more enlightened times. He adopted many salutary regulations, one of which—as a means of defending his rude kingdom from sudden invasion,—was to divide the country along the sea-board into many districts running up into the interior as far as the salmon ascended the rivers, each of which districts was obliged to furnish a certain number of ships and men for the general defence. He established beacons on hills and promontories along the coast, by which the distant approach of the enemy might be signalled from one extremity of the kingdom to the other. This king was greatly aided by the wise counsels of his maternal uncle, the *Jarf Sigurd*, one of the numerous pontiff-chiefs of the country. But neither his own zeal, nor the prudence of his uncle, could enable him to make progress in the work of introducing Christianity among the people. Both chiefs and people were on the point, more than once, of dethroning him for his having brought *Saxon* preachers of the gospel from England, and for his attempts to force the Christian faith and practice upon them. The Christian temples were burned, and the *fager Affkomlinger pa Europes Throner*,” and published not long since at *Stockholm*.

preachers or priests either killed or driven away by the infuriated idolaters. At length Gunilda, the widow of Erik, with her two sons, arrived with a fleet to claim the throne of Norway. They were defeated in their first attempt; but in the second they succeeded, and Hakon received a mortal wound in the unexpected onset which was made upon him. He was buried as a heathen, according to his dying request, and went "to quaff ale with the gods in the happy society of heroes," in Valhalla, as the sagas inform us.

He was succeeded by Harald II., called Graafeld or Grey Mantle, son of Erik and Gunhilda. This monarch, after an almost incessant struggle with other princes of his own family, fell a victim to a plot contrived by Hakon, son of the chieftain Sigurd, mentioned in the preceding paragraph, who was the Jarl of Trondheim, and greatly beloved by the people. Hakon himself,—called Hakon Jarl—had a turbulent reign, and was compelled to share the kingdom with Svend, son of Harald Blaaland, king of Denmark. After a distressing civil war he obtained at length the kingdom to himself, and restored the pagan rites and religion, to the exclusion of Christianity; which had, however, made as yet but little progress. For his debaucheries and other conduct he was at length driven from the country by his outraged subjects, and was succeeded by the celebrated Olaf Tryggvason, a son of prince Tryggve, a grandson of Harald Haarfager, whom Hakon and his mother Gunhilda had murdered. The adventures of this Olaf Tryggvason, who had been carried by his mother during his infancy into Russia, were truly romantic. It is sufficient to say that after a life of many years spent in roaming over the seas, as a sea-king or pirate, and pillaging the coasts of France, England, Ireland, and Scotland, he married Gyda, the sister of a Norman prince then reigning in Dublin, and professed Christianity,

receiving the rite of baptism in London, and afterwards again at Rouen in France.

In a very remarkable and providential manner, in his opinion at least, Olaf Tryggvason was called to the throne of Norway by the dissatisfied subjects of Hakon Jarl. In fact, that prince having heard, by report, the exploits of Olaf, who, like himself, was a descendant from the great Harald Haarfager, sent for him, intending, through fear and jealousy, to make way with him. But the very steps which he took were those which led to the elevation of Olaf to the throne from which he himself was hurled, and shortly afterwards assassinated.

As soon as Olaf Tryggvason had obtained the throne, he set about establishing Christianity throughout his kingdom, and he did it with a vengeance. He gave the people to understand, that to embrace his religion, or death, were the only alternatives. In the southern part of the kingdom he met with but little opposition. The people generally embraced Christianity, and submitted to the instruction of the priests whom he had brought from England. But not so in the northern part. There, at a place called Frosta, in the province of Trondheim, a great assembly was held, and the people drew their swords in answer to the call which the king made upon them to renounce their ancient religion. The convention was adjourned to the Isle of Mære, the metropolis of the national superstition. There a regular theological debate took place between the advocates of the two religious systems; during which Olaf, excited by some remarks of the pagan debaters, knocked the gigantic old statue of Thor in pieces with his mallet, and the sacerdotal chief (Jarnakegg) of the idolaters was slain in the affray that ensued. To end the matter, Olaf offered to the idolaters the choice of a pitched battle or baptism. Disheartened by the loss of their chief, they prudently chose the latter. By such

means Olaf, aided by his Bersærker, or pirate-champions, who attended him everywhere, established Christianity throughout the entire kingdom. Those who would not submit fled to the fastnesses of the Norwegian Alps, and passed the rest of their lives in the solitary enjoyment of their heathen religion, traces of which remain in the superstitions of the people of those inhospitable regions until this day.

Shortly afterwards Olaf demanded the hand of Sigrid the Proud, a Swedish princess. His offer was at first accepted. But the proposition to embrace Christianity was treated with scorn by the lofty admirer of paganism. Whereupon the royal lover most uncourteously replied, "that he would never consent to live with an old heathen hag," and even went so far as to slap her face with his glove; for which insult she predicted the loss of his throne. Not long afterwards she married Svend, king of Denmark, whom she soon excited to war against Olaf. In this he was aided by the king of Sweden and the exiled Erik, (son of Hakon Jarl,) who had been living at the court of Denmark. The combined forces surprised Olaf not far from Stralsund, on the Pomeranian coast. A fierce naval battle ensued. Olaf gave orders to his fleet (which was much inferior to that of the confederates) from his great ship, the Long Serpent, which far exceeded in bulk any vessel which had ever been seen on those northern seas previously to that epoch. At length his enemies triumphed. His own huge ship was scaled by means of tall ladders, which resembled "trees," placed against its sides. Olaf and the few that remained of his gallant Bersærker, threw themselves into the sea and were drowned. Such was the end of this wonderful Olaf Tryggvason; unless, indeed, it be true—as two of his biographers, Gunnlang and Oddur, have affirmed—that he saved his life on that occasion by swimming; and having visited, in disguise,

Rome and the Holy Land, turned anchorite, and spent the rest of his eventful life in solitary devotions, to expiate the sins of the former portion of it. The northern chronicles represent him as the greatest hero of his times; an opinion in which we ourselves are very much inclined to coincide with them. He was the founder of the city of Trondheim, and did not a little, for that barbarous age, to advance the liberal arts, especially that of ship-building.

On the death, or disappearance of Olaf, his dominions were seized by the confederates. The kings of Denmark and Sweden divided the southern part between them, and left Erik and Svend, the sons of Hakon Jarl, to rule over the remainder. After some years had passed away, a new candidate for the throne appeared, in the person of Olaf, son of Harald Grænske, a descendant of Harald Haarfager. Erik was then away, assisting the king of Denmark, Canute the Great, in his wars in England. Olaf soon got possession of the kingdom. He was beloved by the Christian party, to which he belonged, having been baptized in his infancy. But his immoderate zeal in behalf of Christianity—which he endeavored to propagate by fire and sword—raised up many enemies. Canute the Great, upon his return from England, landed near Trondheim, defeated him in battle, and compelled him to fly, with his infant son, to Russia; and appointed Hakon, son of Erik Jarl, as viceroy over Norway. Upon the death of that prince, Olaf returned, and made a desperate effort to recover his crown; but he was defeated and slain, in a battle fought on the 31st of August, 1030, near to Trondheim. A total eclipse of the sun occurred that day, and separated for a while the combatants. The body of Olaf was carried to Trondheim, and buried in the magnificent cathedral which arose on the ruins of the temple of Thor. Soon his cruelties were forgotten; and from being

accounted a bad king, he was in process of time regarded as a good saint. Churches were erected in honor of the royal martyr, not only in Norway, but also in many of the neighboring countries. And no saint is more celebrated, even in our times, than is St. Olaf.

Svend, one of the sons of Canute the Great, succeeded to the throne of Norway. But his unjust government soon rendered the people dissatisfied to such a degree, that they drove him away, and chose Magnus, afterwards called the Good—a son of St. Olaf—who was then in Russia. This excellent prince was opposed by Svend Estrithson, a nephew of Canute the Great, who had succeeded to the throne of Denmark, and also by his uncle, Harald Hadrada, a brother of St. Olaf, who had returned from Constantinople, where he had distinguished himself as the leader or captain of the Norwegian life-guard of the Greek emperor. Magnus agreed to share the kingdom with his uncle; and soon afterwards dying, left the whole of it to him. With the reign of Magnus the Good, we terminate the first portion of the history of Norway.

2. NORWAY, AFTER THE INTRODUCTION OF CHRISTIANITY.

We come now to the second, which treats of the period which elapsed from the introduction of Christianity until the union of Norway with Denmark.

The second portion of the history of Norway comprises a period of 340 years, being from 1047 until 1387. And, what perhaps ought not to astonish us, in proportion as the annals of this country become more authentic records of events which actually occurred, the less they abound in uncommon or striking incidents. Harald Hadrada, the half brother of St. Olaf, and uncle to Magnus the Good,

was the first of the line of twenty-five kings who reigned in Norway during this period.*

This king was called Hardrada, (the Stern,) from the contrast between his character and that of his predecessor. And if his life in Russia, and in the service of the Greek Emperor, at Constantinople, was full of adventures, not less remarkable was his life after he had come to the throne of Norway. One of the first things which he attempted was the seizure of the crown of Denmark, to which he had not the slightest claim in justice. This led to a long and disastrous war between him and Svend Estrithson, the nephew of Canute the Great, and then king of that country. That war was brought to a close by the great naval battle, which was fought in the river Nissa, in which the Danes sustained a total defeat. Svend, their king, escaped, through the kindness of Hakon Ivarsson, Harald's admiral, and commander of the right wing of his fleet in that battle. Svend, upon returning to Denmark, prepared to renew the war; but Harald was induced to make proposals for peace, which were accepted; and in the year 1064, a treaty of

* The following is a list of the names of the sovereigns who reigned in Norway during this period:

	DIED, A. C.		DIED, A. C.
Harald Hardrada,	1066	Sverre,	1202
Magnus II.,	1069	Hakon III.,	1204
Olaf III., (Kyrre,)	1093	Guttorm,	1205
Magnus, (Barfoed,)	1103	Inge II.,	1207
Olaf IV.,	1116	Hakon IV.,	1263
Eistein I.,	1122	Magnus VI., (Laga-	
Sigurd I.,	1130	boeter),	1280
Magnus IV.,	1134	Erik II., (the Priest-	
Harald IV., (Gille,)	1136	hater,)	1299
Sigurd II.,	1155	Hakon V.,	1319
Eistein II.,	1157	Magnus VII., (Smek	
Inge I.,	1161	II. of Sweden,)	1343
Hakon II.,	1162	Hakon VI.,	1380
Magnus V.,	1186	Olaf,	1387

amity was effected between the two powers. Harald survived this pacification only two years; for invading England with an immense fleet of some five hundred vessels, of all kinds, he conquered all before him, from the Tees to the Humber. But Harold, the king of that country, and son of Earl Godwin, marched against him, and utterly defeated him, in a great battle near the city of York. In this battle Harald Hardrada lost his life. With him ceased all attempts, which threatened to be of a serious nature, by the Northmen, to regain their lost influence and power in England. It is remarkable, that William of Normandy, (commonly called William the Conqueror,) landed in England three days after the disastrous defeat of Harald Hardrada and his forces, near York, and soon gave the victorious Harold an equally disastrous defeat, at Hastings, on the 14th of October, 1066.

Harald Hardrada was succeeded by his sons Magnus II. and Olaf III. Magnus, after a reign of only three years, died, and left his brother sole possessor of the kingdom. This Olaf was a good king. During his reign of 25 years, the country had uninterrupted peace. It is related of him, that he did much to promote the civilization of his subjects. He established guilds, or companies, for the promotion of the arts; founded a commercial emporium at Bergen; adopted regulations for emancipating the slaves which war, or birth, or crime, had made among his people, by requiring every district to set one bondsman free annually; he endowed the bishopricks of his kingdom with a fixed revenue; commenced the building of a stone cathedral at Trondheim, where the relics of his royal ancestor, St. Olaf, were deposited; and, what more fully indicates the progress of civilization than all his other acts, he introduced chimneys and glass windows, which had hitherto been unknown to the rude inhabitants of his kingdom.

Upon the death of Olaf III., his son Magnus III. suc-

ceeded, not without opposition; for his cousin Hakon disputed his claims. But Hakon having been utterly defeated, left Magnus undisputed master of the entire country. This king, however, loved war, and hated the quietude of a peaceful life. His first effort was to reconquer the Scottish isles, which had thrown off their dependence upon Norway. In this expedition he subdued the islands of Man and Anglesea, and, crossing over to Ireland, he captured the king of Dublin, and compelled O'Brien, king of Connaught, to become his vassal.

Upon his return to Norway, he engaged in a war with Sweden, which, after several disastrous incursions into the frontiers of both kingdoms, was terminated by a treaty of peace, through the intervention of Erik Eiegod, king of Denmark, and Magnus married Margaret, the daughter of the Swedish monarch.

Next he undertook the entire conquest of Ireland, and had well nigh succeeded, when he was decoyed into an ambush on the coast of Ulster, defeated, and slain.

His three sons, Sigurd, Eistein, and Olaf, succeeded him, and divided Norway between them. Eistein and Olaf were of a peaceable disposition, and their reigns were not marked by any extraordinary event. Olaf died in 1116, and Eistein in 1122. But the adventures of Sigurd are greatly renowned in the chronicles of Norway.

Smitten with the desire of visiting the Holy Land, which was at that epoch the field of glory to the Christian chieftains of distinguished valor, and which not a few Norwegian princes had already visited since the introduction of Christianity into their country, Sigurd set out with several thousand brave adventurers. They went by way of the "Middle Sea," as the Scandinavians called the Mediterranean, with a fleet of some sixty sail. The first winter they spent in England, where they were magnificently entertained by Henry I. Afterwards they defeated a Sara-

cenic fleet off the coast of Portugal, captured Cintra at the mouth of the Tagus, and plundered Lisbon, then in the hands of the Moors. Thence they moved onward toward their place of destination, capturing another Moorish fleet in the Straits of Gibraltar, and spending, on their way, several days with their countryman, Count Roger, in Sicily. At length they reached the Holy Land, and went up to Jerusalem, where they were joyfully received by Baldwin, brother of Godfrey of Bouillon, who accompanied Sigurd to the banks of the Jordan, and presented him with a fragment of the true cross, which the northern monarch promised to deposite in the shrine of St. Olaf, at Trondheim, where, they say, it may be seen at the present time. Sigurd helped the king of Jerusalem to take Sidon, and received half the plunder. In the spring of the year following, (A. D. 1111,) he left Palestine to return to his own kingdom. On his way back he was entertained in the most sumptuous manner at Constantinople, by Alexius, the Greek Emperor. The magnificent presents, however, which he received, were all distributed by him amongst his brave followers. In return, the barbarian king gave to the Oriental emperor his fleet, the "dragon-heads" or prows of which were placed in the Church of St. Peter. From Constantinople he set out, by land, for the North; and traversing the country which now is called Austria, and, afterwards, Germany, he arrived safely in Denmark, where he was hospitably received by King Nicholas, and furnished with ships to transport him, his followers, and their plunder, to the shores of Norway, where they were joyfully received. As the brothers of Sigurd had both died in the meanwhile, he was left sole ruler of the realm. During his latter years he was engaged in various enterprises, one of which was to aid the king of Denmark in reconquering the inhabitants of Smaland, and reducing them to Christianity. A better task was that of supplying

the spiritual wants of the Norwegian colonists in Greenland, by sending a bishop to that remote and inhospitable region.

Sigurd died in 1130. He is known in Norwegian story by the surname of Jorsalafare. He reigned twenty-seven years. No prince of Norway has been more celebrated in song and in story than Sigurd, by the Skalds, with whom he was a great favorite, and to whom he had been a most liberal patron. His son, Magnus IV., succeeded him on the throne, "according to the oath which all the people had sworn."

But soon troubles arose, and civil strife and war commenced, which continued with but little intermission for about a century. It is foreign wholly to the nature of this work to enter into the details of this century of confusion. We will only say that the strife was commenced by an Irish adventurer, named Harald Gille, who claimed to be a natural son of Magnus Barfoed (Barefoot), and proved his parentage by walking unhurt over nine burning ploughshares! A rather severe mode of proving such a fact. Upon this it was agreed that he should share the kingdom with Magnus. But soon a feud commenced, which led to a civil war, the upshot of which was that Magnus was taken prisoner and confined in a monastery, and his Irish competitor was left master of the field. Soon afterwards Harald himself was assassinated by Sigurd, another pretended son of Magnus Barfoed. Three of the sons of Harald succeeded at once to the throne, two of whom fell in fratricidal war, and the third, Inge I., then reigned solus the rest of his life. In the midst of these civil broils the Cardinal Albano, an Englishman by birth, whose original name was Nicolas Breakspeare, arrived in Norway, as legate from the Romish see. He exerted a great and happy influence in checking for a while these disturbances, and established the archbishoprick of Trondheim for

the kingdom, a power which soon became most formidable to the regal authority, and subversive of it. For the very first archbishop that was appointed by the Pope, Eistein, refused to consecrate Magnus V., then a minor, unless his father, the regent, would promise that the realm should thenceforth be held as a fief of St. Olaf, of whom Magnus and his successors were to acknowledge themselves as vassals; their superior lord being represented by the archbishops of Trondheim, whose consent was made at all times indispensable to the filling of the vacant throne. This was altering the whole constitution, if we may so say, of Norway. Hitherto, in that kingdom, as in Sweden and Denmark, the sovereign had always been elected in popular assembly from among the descendants of the royal stock, with a general preference of the eldest son of the late king over his brothers and nephews. But now it was proposed, and adopted, that the king should hereafter be chosen by the bishop, abbots, and twelve chieftains from each diocese, with the advice and consent of the Primate. Under these terms did Magnus V. come to the throne. But he found no peace in that position. A remarkable competitor appeared in the celebrated Sverre, whose romantic history recalls the marvellous incidents of the heroic age. He was a natural son of Sigurd II., by a concubine of the name of Gunhilda, who, after the death of that sovereign, married a blacksmith, or armorer, and removed with him to the Farøe Islands. There the young Sverre was brought up by his maternal uncle, Bishop Hroe, and received an education for the priesthood. He even took orders. But having learned from his mother the story of his birth, and being encouraged also by a marvellous dream of his having been changed into a great bird, whose body hovered over and covered all Norway, the beak reaching to the Nase and the tail to the North Cape, he left his island-home, and repaired to Norway, where he was kindly

received by Erling, the father of the minor, Magnus, and regent of the realm. Soon afterwards, Sverre was chosen chief of the warrior-faction, called the *Birkibeinar*, and began to take measures to obtain the throne. After a long struggle and many battles, he succeeded in his object, Magnus having been defeated and driven from the kingdom three times. In his last effort to dispossess the usurper, that prince lost his life in the waves. His body was recovered, and was deposited in the cathedral at Trondheim, Sverre himself pronouncing the funeral oration! After this Sverre had a protracted controversy with Eistein, the archbishop, (respecting coronation), whom he finally compelled to leave the kingdom. But his successor, Erik, was not more tractable, for he refused to crown Sverre unless he would acknowledge the kingdom to be a fief of St. Olaf, which Sverre would not do. The Pope even hurled a bull of excommunication at both him and Bishop Nicholas, who had ventured to crown him, declaring it to be an enormity unheard of, "that an excommunicated priest should become an anointed king." In the meanwhile Sverre had to fight for his crown with Sigurd, a son of Magnus V., who was aided by King Valdemar I., of Denmark. But Sverre's superior talents and prudence prevailed in the contest. He died, however, in the midst of these vexations and broils at Bergen, at the age of fifty-one, and after a reign, or rather a struggle for the crown, of 25 years. He was the greatest sovereign that Norway ever had, and was perhaps superior to any prince of his day in talent and learning, and skill in military affairs, not even excepting Valdemar the Great, of Denmark, or Frederick Barbarossa of Germany.

Sverre was succeeded by his excellent son, Hakon II., who reconciled the Pope and the Catholic clergy of the kingdom, and once more restored tranquillity to the State. But he lived only two years after he came to the throne,

and was succeeded by Guttrom, a grand-son of Sverre. He was soon taken off by poison, as was also his opponent and successor, Inge II. Hakon III., a natural son of Sverre, then ascended the throne. But before his claims were acknowledged, his mother, Inga, had to undergo the ordeal of the burning iron glove, in order to prove his birth. According to the Saga, her right hand came forth from the glove not only unhurt, but more beautiful than ever. This settled the matter. Hakon, however, soon found a formidable rival in Skule Jarl, whom he admitted to a share of his authority, but whom in the end he had to fight against. At last the Jarl was defeated and slain in a battle fought near to the spot where Christiania now stands. Hakon was acknowledged by a council of the "best men of the land," and turned his attention to the arts of peace. He encouraged commerce, fortified the posts, and did much to advance the best interests of his people. He was at length crowned by the Cardinal-bishop of Sabina, whom Innocent IV. sent to Norway for that purpose. This legate, during his visit, abolished the practice of settling matters by "God's doom," as the trial by the ordeal was called, and declared it to be unworthy of Christians. He did not dare, however, to mention, in Norway, the subject of the celibacy of the priests, which measure he enforced in Sweden.

Hakon carried on a successful war, first against Sweden, and afterwards against Denmark, which he concluded by the marriage of his son Magnus with Margaret, the daughter of the Danish sovereign, Christopher I. But he made an unfortunate expedition to Scotland, to recover the Hebrides, which Alexander III., king of that country, had seized. After a disastrous defeat on the western coast of that kingdom, he returned to the Orkney Islands, where he sickened and died, leaving his kingdom to his son, Magnus VI.

Magnus VI. was one of the best kings that Norway ever

had. He is called Lagabaeter, or the Law-giver, from the efforts which he made to collect, arrange, and improve the laws of the country, which, in his day, for the first time, assumed the form of a regular and digested code. He made peace with Scotland, and renounced all claim to the Scottish isles, with the exception of the Orkneys and the Shetlands, for the pecuniary consideration of 4,000 marks, and an annual quit-rent of 100 marks for ever. He made great improvement in the administration of justice, by courts, and especially by a general assize or court, called the Law-Thing, to be held annually at Bergen, as a sort of supreme court, or court of last appeal. After a useful reign of seventeen years Magnus VI. died, in 1280, and was succeeded by his son, Erik II., called the Priest-hater, because he drove the archbishop of Trondheim from the kingdom on account of his exorbitant claims. The archbishop's successor was more pliant, and peace was restored between the throne and the Roman Catholic Church. A great part of his reign was spent in a desolating war with Denmark. He married Margaret, daughter of Alexander III., of Scotland. But leaving no male issue, he was succeeded by his brother Hakon V.

Hakon V. was, in the main, a good sovereign. His daughter, Ingeborg, was given in marriage to Duke Erik, brother of Birger, king of Sweden, by whom he was barbarously murdered. Hakon, indignant at the death of his son-in-law, resolved to avenge it. The banishment of Birger from the throne of Sweden was the issue of this war. His nephew, Magnus Smek, the son of Ingeborg, was chosen king in his stead, and proclaimed as such amid the acclamations of the people. This prince was also heir to the throne of Norway, by the right of his mother, and ascended the throne of that country upon the death of his grandfather Hakon V. After reigning for twenty-four years over the now united kingdom of Sweden and Nor-

the kingdom, and in places where it has often happened that a school is impracticable.

But the present more efficient educational arrangement dates from the year 1814, when the establishment of a Constitution in Norway infused new life into this as well as every other branch of the public interests. We shall not go into extended detail on this subject. It would only be to repeat much of what we have said in relation to the school system of Denmark. We will merely state, that the parishes are required by law to have schools in sufficient numbers, to have good school-houses, and to pay the schoolmasters their salaries. A small poll-tax is paid by every adult person, amounting to about eight cents of our money, to support schools. The householders pay a light assessment for the same object. The salaries of the rectors, as the schoolmasters are called, vary much, according to the different circumstances of the country. Usually each school district has a house for the teacher adjoining the school; and in addition to his salary in money, pay him in kind, or nature, as it is termed, a portion of the productions of the ground, or other means of their wealth. In general the teachers are enabled, from their various incomes, to live with a good degree of comfort.

The compulsory system of Prussia prevails in Norway. Parents are required to send their children to school a certain portion of every year, until they attain the age, we believe, of sixteen years. And this law, we were told by well-informed men, is enforced. The consequence is, that few children in Norway are now growing up without receiving a considerable amount of instruction, in reading, writing, arithmetic, the history of the Sacred Scriptures, and the catechism. In many of the schools, perhaps we might say in most of them, especially in the cities and villages, geography, grammar and history, are added to these primitive and fundamental elements of instruction.

For the sparse population of the North, where along many a fiord a few families only are scattered, itinerating teachers are employed, who spend a month in one neighborhood, and a month in another, so that by this,—inadequate, certainly, to accomplish all that is desirable, but yet eminently important,—the ability to read and write, and some knowledge of figures, are imparted to the youth in the course of a few years. Were it not for this plan of ambulation on the part of the teachers, primary school instruction would be impossible in many parts of Norway.

Normal schools, for the instruction of school teachers, have been established in several points of the kingdom. In almost every case these schools are in the country, in the vicinity of some chief place, and not in the crowded city or town. This we think to be a decided improvement upon the Prussian and Dutch plans. It is more economical, more congenial to the future position of the pupils, and more conducive to health. It would be different in the case of a Normal school for the education of professors for colleges. Such a school should be in some large and literary place, as is the case with the Royal Normal School of Paris. But for the education of parish school-masters, all the knowledge which they need may be communicated at a good Normal school established in the country, if it be properly conducted, and properly supplied with the books and other means necessary for the purpose.

Schools for learning the Latin and Greek languages, as well as the higher branches of a good common education, are established in various cities and towns of the kingdom. Colleges or Gymnasias are also established at Christiania, Bergen, Trondheim, Christiansand, Stavanger, and other principal towns, at which young men may prepare for the studies of the university.

Nor must we fail to mention that a good asylum for the

instruction of deaf and dumb persons exists at Trondheim. But no school or institution for the instruction of the blind exists any where in Norway, if we have been correctly informed.

But the most important literary establishment in Norway is its University, at Christiania. This institution, so much needed to give to the country a literary character, and to secure strength and energy and guidance to all the other parts of her educational system, was founded by the late King of Denmark, Frederick VI., in the year 1811. The want of such an institution had long been felt. Previously to its establishment, the young men of Norway who desired a university education, were compelled to seek it at Copenhagen. This was inconvenient, and withal exposed them to the temptations of the capital, so that many a simple-hearted, pious parent, who valued as a pearl beyond price, the good morals of his son, dreaded to commit him to the bark that should carry him over the waves of the Cattegat, to that dangerous city.

But what immediately led to the founding of this University was the long-continued war between Denmark and England, from 1807 till 1814, during which the British cruisers,—the fleet of Denmark having been annihilated by the capture of Copenhagen in the first of those years,—swept every thing from the Cattegat, the Skagge-rack, and the North Sea, which bore the semblance of the Danish flag, and rendered intercourse between Norway and the mother country hazardous in the extreme, if not impossible.

In the time of this crisis, Norway experienced more than ever the need of a University. The Patriotic Society, established at Christiania, took the initiative in the matter, and decreed a prize to the author of the best essay on the establishment of a University in the kingdom. It opened a subscription for erecting a building, and for endowing

professorships; and notwithstanding the war, the great increase of taxes, and the stagnation of commerce and almost all kinds of trade, very considerable sums were subscribed in a short time. The king of Denmark gave to the projected establishment the sum of 100,000 rix dollars, or somewhat more than 50,000 American dollars, besides certain landed and other property which he had in Norway. He also presented to its library the duplicates of the Royal Library in Copenhagen. The ordinance for the establishment of this University bears the date of the 2d of September, 1811.

The rules of the University have been formed after those of the University of Copenhagen; the order of studies, the number of examinations, and the discipline, are entirely the same as those which prevail in that institution.

The University buildings stand in the centre of the city of Christiania, and are plain, but sufficiently spacious. The library contains 120,000 volumes, and the sum of \$3,000 is annually appropriated to its further enlargement. As we have said in another place, this library is not as well selected as it might have been; still it is a valuable collection of books, and is certainly large for the short period that the institution has been in existence. With the exception of the Observatory and the Botanical Garden, the other branches of the establishment leave much to be desired. This must, of course, be the case in an institution so young. What has been accomplished augurs well for the future.

The number of professors in this University,—whose proper title in Latin is *UNIVERSITAS REGIA FREDERICIANA*, is as follows: In theology 3; in Law 2; in Medicine 7; in Philosophy 14; and in the *SEMINARIUM PHILOLOGICUM* 2; making twenty-eight in all. The number of students last winter was about 600, of whom nearly 150 were

students of Theology. The remainder were chiefly divided between the faculties of Medicine and Philosophy. The number of the students in Law was not considerable.

Several of the professors in this University are men of considerable distinction. The three professors of Theology are Dr. Keyser, Dietrickson, and Kaurin—all good men and evangelical in their faith, it is said. Haustien, professor of Astronomy, and Keilhan, professor of Mineralogy, are excellent men, and considerably celebrated for their attainments. The other professors are said to be respectable in their several departments.

Another University is demanded by the inhabitants of the northern part of the kingdom, to whom it is extremely inconvenient to send their sons to Christiania, for the distance is far from being inconsiderable. But it is doubtful whether they will soon have their wishes fulfilled; for one University would seem to be sufficient for a country of so limited a population as Norway possesses.

Norway has but little independent literature, which she can properly call her own. Hitherto she has depended chiefly on Denmark, or on translations of works from foreign languages. The written languages of Denmark and Norway being the same, and the spoken languages of the two countries differing but little, it was natural that the Norwegians, so long as they were united to Denmark, should derive their literature chiefly from that country. It is even so still, to a considerable degree,—though less than it was before their transfer to Sweden.

During its union with Denmark, Norway furnished no inconsiderable contingent of talent to the common stock. Two of the greatest poets that Denmark ever possessed, Holberg and Wessel, were born in Norway, but were educated in the mother country.

The most distinguished poets of Norway at this time

are Wergeland and Welhawen. There are others, but of less fame.

There is, unquestionably, an increase of a taste for reading in Norway. The establishment of a university has done much to promote knowledge in the country. But it was the erection of Norway into a remarkably free country, by the adoption of a constitution which has given the greatest impulse to the mind of the people. The press is free, completely so. The number of newspapers has become great, for so small a population; not only are there several—some of them daily papers—published at Christiania, but every other place of any consequence has one or more of these important vehicles of knowledge. One of these is published at Tromsøe, on a little island, far off in the north, in about lat. 70°. These papers are filled with the politics of the country. As may be supposed, there are two great parties in the country, composed of the friends and the opponents of the national government, or administration. Of course, the newspapers take the type of one or the other of these parties. The opposition is, however, manifestly the stronger party of the two, and is sustained by the ablest journals. The discussions which fill the columns of the papers of each party, are warm and earnest. The people catch the same spirit, and every where their minds are awake to the interests of the country, for they see that their own are involved in them. All this is good, and tends greatly to promote knowledge. The Norwegians are now becoming a reading people. Their minds are becoming enlarged, and they feel that they breathe the air of freedom, and that they tread the land of freedom. Whilst the press of Denmark, and even that of Sweden also, is greatly shackled, theirs is free. Thus far, that freedom has not degenerated into licentiousness. May it be long guarded from such a catastrophe! For then the noble

freedom which they now enjoy, and so highly prize, will prove to be a curse, instead of a blessing.

There are several monthly journals published in Norway, which have a considerable circulation. Among them is what may be called a Penny Magazine, which resembles the work of that name which is published in England, and republished in our own country. Indeed, we believe the Norwegian journal is a translation, in the main, of the English.

The whole number of newspapers, properly so called, is about twenty. There is no duty on them, nor is the postage great. An attempt is making to have the newspapers distributed by mail, free of postage. The government has been guilty of doing what is manifestly unwise, as well as unjust, in allowing those journals which are favorable to it to be carried in the mails, free of expense to the subscriber. This irritates the opposition, and does no good to the government, inasmuch as the postage is not so great as to be an obstacle in the way of circulating the newspapers of the other party.

The cost of a daily paper in Norway is about seven dollars of our money per annum. The most extensively circulated in the kingdom is the *Morgenblad*, published at Christiania. In paper and type, this journal (and the same thing may be said of some others,) is superior to the most of the French and German papers. Its articles of foreign and domestic news are well prepared, and its editorial articles are written with much ability. We are acquainted with one of its editors, and a better informed man we have rarely seen any where. He has charge of its foreign department, and is very well acquainted with other countries, having traveled much in all parts of Europe.

Some of the newspapers are chiefly devoted to advertisements; and it is not a little amusing to see what

they contain. As there is no tax on advertisements, the most trifling matters are announced, and the publisher seems to act as a sort of broker, or exchanger, at whose office almost any thing may be had. For instance, one may see an advertisement stating that a turkey, or a calf, or pig, is for sale, and inquiry may be made at the office of the publisher. These things are trifles; but they show that these papers are read by people to whom such matters are no trifles.

CHAPTER IV.

MORAL AND RELIGIOUS STATE OF NORWAY.

The Norwegians resemble the Swedes and Danes in general traits of character—Frank, open, brave, not rude—Prevalence of red and yellow hair—Dress of the higher classes—Costumes of the peasants—Ancient manners of the remote glens—Prevalence of polite and civil customs—Loyalty and patriotism of the Norwegians—General neatness and order of their houses—Norwegians generally an honest people—A good deal of licentiousness and intemperance among them—Prone to quarrel—~~Stockfjeldan's~~ account of them in this respect—A great change. RELIGION—~~Number of~~ bishopricks and Parishes—Probable number of ministers of the gospel—The religion of Norway wholly Protestant and Lutheran—~~Illiberal law in relation to the Jews and Jesuits~~—Probable reasons for it—The religious state of the Laplanders—The pious exertions of Pastor Stockfjeld in their behalf—State of religion low in Norway—Want of churches in the large towns and chief cities—Want of evangelical doctrine among the pastors—Parishes in many cases too large—Pastors appointed by the Council—Proposed change in this respect—Attempts to promote French infidelity—Want of religious liberty in Norway—Dissent necessary—Hans Houga—His followers—Quakers in Norway.

THE Norwegians, in the general traits of their physical and moral character, resemble the Danes and Swedes. They are an open and frank people. In point of size they are smaller than their neighbors of the Scandinavian race. There is also a greater prevalence of yellow and reddish hair among them than one sees in either Denmark or Sweden. "Red-haired and yellow-haired" Norwegians, are epithets which one often meets with in their poetry. Whilst they cannot be called so handsome a people as the Germans and Dutch, there are, nevertheless, not wanting instances of great beauty, especially among the females in the southern part of the kingdom.

The Norwegians are compactly formed, strong and active. They are capable of much labor, and are bold

and energetic. They are, however, not a rude or boisterous people. They are free, but not forward and insolent. They are fond of society, and much of their time, during the long winter nights, is spent in assemblies. They love dancing, and greatly excel in that exercise. It is rare to meet with even a peasant who is not familiar with the dances popular in the kingdom.

In the chief towns and villages the dress of the people of all ranks is the same as that which is worn in all the corresponding classes amongst us; or, at any rate, the difference is scarcely observable. The fashions of Paris penetrate to the villages of the remotest valleys of Norway. But it is otherwise among the peasant or farmer population. There the female ~~costume~~ consists generally of a petticoat and short jacket of ~~homespun~~ stuff, bound with a sash round the waist, a colored handkerchief on the head, with the ends flying out behind the ears. The men's apparel is more grotesque than that of the Swedes. A cap of fur, or a red and blue woollen cowl, is worn in place of a hat. Enormous brass buckles take the place of shoe-strings. The natives of Tellmark use short breeches and knee-buckles, with girdles around their waists; and, in a word, their style of costume has the antique air of the dress of the Swedes of the days of Gustavus Adolphus. In the winter, close fur caps, with flannel waistcoats, sheep-skin cloaks with the wool turned inside, or deer-skin coats, or very thick woollen coats, are worn, with boots doubly lined, or made of strong leather, over which are drawn large ones, made of bear-skin or reindeer-skin.

The national character differs much in different classes of society. In the interior, and amidst the hills, the Norwegian of the present day retains much of the manners of the olden time, and of the days of St. Olaf, or Snorre Sturleson. There is a great deal of civility, or conven-

tional politeness, among all classes. The rudest and most ignorant peasants always speak to each other, when they pass on the road. Not only so, they take off the hat, and incline the body in a way that is very pleasant. The friendly salutation is heard every where. They are in the habit of wishing each other prosperity in whatever work they may find each other engaged. This must have a good effect, to some degree at least, upon their lives and social intercourse. It may be indeed a matter of custom, but customs of this sort must have a humanizing, a softening influence. Indeed, this is manifest to all who have spent any time among the Norwegians. They may have their vices, they may have many things which are wrong amongst them; but they are less outrageously wicked and disagreeable than they would be, if it were not for these conventional usages. We wish that there were more of these, and other appropriate forms of civility amongst our people. It would do us good. We should not see, as we too often do, not only the lowest classes, but those who demand to be reckoned the highest also, passing each other on the road—to say nothing of the street—without deigning to give each other a kindly look and a kindly salutation, or even a nod of the head. There is nothing more true of us as a nation—we say it knowingly and fearlessly—than that we are a rude people. We cannot be charged with want of benevolence. Strangers will find kindness amongst us, when they need it, and as much of it as they will find in any other country; but as a people, we are destitute, to a very great degree, of that conventional politeness, that kindliness of manner which is so beautiful in itself, and which is so winning, and which, withal, costs so little, and yet exerts so soothing and softening an influence. But let us return from this digression.

In loyalty and patriotism, no people in the world surpass the Norwegians. Their native land is the burden of

their popular and favorite songs. Even their bleak and dreary mountains are dear to their hearts. Every thing which relates to *Gamle Norge*, (Old Norway,) has a perfect charm for them. When the very name is pronounced in their assemblies, convened for popular amusement or enjoyment, or when it is given as a toast, every voice repeats the words, and every glass is filled, raised to the lips, and drained. The Swiss "*Ranz des Vaches*" does not have a more wonderful charm for the shepherd of the Alps, than do the words *Gamle Norge* for the heart of the Norwegian.

In their houses, as well as in their persons, the Norwegians have a good degree of tidiness. Their furniture may be plain, coarse even, but every thing is clean. And though they have no nobility among them, there is no little pride of family. It is said, that among the dwellers in the glens and remote valleys, there are families which claim to trace their lineage from the chieftains of the days of Harald Haarfager and Rolf Gaunger. And, in consequence of their high pedigree, there is, in some places, vast care taken not to allow their children to marry into other provinces, or with families whose blood and birth are not equal to their own.

It is unquestionably true that there is a great amount of honesty and general good conduct among the Norwegians. Mr. Laing, in giving an account of a Fair, in the north part of the kingdom, which he attended, and which lasted three weeks, states, that the total of the delinquencies which were committed on the occasion, by the thousands of individuals who were present, consisted of one case of theft, one driving of a sledge without a bell, and thus injuring a woman, and one sale of a horse which had the glanders! There may be a little exaggeration here, from want of full information, (though Mr. L. tells us that he had the facts from the civil authorities, whose business it

certainly was to know,) yet there is no disputing the general good conduct of the people, in almost all circumstances.

There is a good deal of licentiousness in Norway. The proportion of illegitimate children to those which are legitimate, is stated by Mr. Laing to be as one to five. This fact does not speak well for the morality of the country. But this is not wonderful, when we consider the low state of religion throughout the kingdom. Where the pulpit is not faithful, the state of morality will soon be low.

Notwithstanding all that Mr. Laing says in relation to the general sobriety of the Norwegians, we fear that there is a good deal of drunkenness among the people. At any rate, there is an amount of steady, hard drinking, which must be injurious to the constitution and health of any one. The Norwegians generally eat four times a-day; and on three of these occasions, Mr. Laing being witness, they drink one glass, at least, of brandy, or rather of potato whisky. As every farmer is allowed to distil his potatoes or rye, without paying a duty, and even to engage in the traffic in ardent spirits, upon paying a small tax, the number of little distilleries is immense, as in Sweden; and the consequence is, that the use of whisky is almost universal among the male population. French brandy and Holland gin are also imported, at a nominal duty, and the former, especially, is not a little used in all the seaports, and in the villages along the coast. Indeed, it may be found in the houses of the wealthy in all parts of the kingdom.

There is no doubt that drunkenness is the cause, in Norway, as in the other Scandinavian countries, of most of the great crimes, as well as all the riots which occur. The Norwegians are naturally a rather quarrelsome people. This was their character in days of old; and when they have taken a sufficient quantity of the fiery liquid, this propensity manifests itself in no very equivocal manner.

Pontoppidan, whose word cannot be doubted, mentions with much sorrow, this infirmity of his countrymen, and states that when heated over their cups, the combatants would hook themselves together by the belt, draw their knives, and fight it out to the last, until one or the other was mortally wounded! And what seems incredible—though we believe that it comes down to us through a veracious channel—it is said that so prevalent was this savage custom, before the middle of the seventeenth century, when families were invited to weddings, that the wife took her husband's shroud with her, because there was a strong probability that it would be needed before the scene passed away. The Danish government tried long, and in the end successfully, to put down this horrible spirit; and now the lawyer's pen takes the place, in case of a dispute, of the deadly knife.

The Norwegians are very fond of parties and other occasions of meeting for amusement. At certain seasons, and particularly in the long winters, they devote not a little of their time to social enjoyments. Then the merry bells of the sledges (or sleighs, as we call these vehicles) are to be heard in every village, and in every glen of their country. But, there is no festival occasion which is more celebrated among them than that called Yule. It is heathen in its origin, but they have contrived to get it into such a place in the calendar as to make it correspond with Christmas. During about two weeks there is vast festivity every where. The fashionable people dance to the music of the guitar, a favorite instrument among them,—and the peasants and servants to that of the clarionet, which the herdsboy plays for them.

There are some customs of this country which are precisely the same as those which prevail in Sweden, and of which we shall give a full account when we come to speak of that country.

RELIGION.—There are in Norway five bishopricks, and 336 parishes,—called prestegilda, in the language of the country,—all supplied with pastors of the Lutheran Church, which may be said to be the only denomination of Christians in Norway, and embraces almost the entire population.

The number of clergy in Norway is not to be estimated by the number of parishes, inasmuch as many of the largest parishes have two, and some even three, pastors, or a pastor and an assistant, or two assistants. Besides the bishops, there are what are called probsts or deans, who are pastors of more than ordinary talent or distinction, who have oversight of several parishes. In general the number of parishes committed to a probst does not exceed five or six. His duty is to see that the public worship is maintained, that the churches are kept in repair, and that the pastors perform their duties. The probsts receive a small addition to their salaries, and have their traveling expenses borne. They make regular reports to the bishops of their respective dioceses. We do not know the precise number of the ministers of the gospel in Norway; but we believe that, including bishops and probsts, is it about four hundred and twenty-five.

The bishops and other clergy are supported by tithes and other revenues which have been granted to them by the state. They are, in general, well supported. The salaries of the bishops are estimated at from \$3,500 to \$4,000. Those of the pastors, or chief parish ministers, at from \$800 to \$1,600, according to the situation of the parish.

There are a few Moravians scattered throughout Norway, but their number is not great enough in any one place to form a congregation of any considerable size. The excellent Mr. Möhne at Christiania is, we believe, the only pastor of that denomination in the kingdom, and his flock is

but a mere handful, and do not constitute a church, properly speaking, for they receive the sacraments in the regular Lutheran churches of the city.

There is not a Roman Catholic church in all Norway. The laws of the kingdom forbid a Jesuit or a Jew to reside within its limits; and these laws are executed to the letter. There is something remarkable in this. Norway, as we shall see presently, is the freest country in Europe, and yet she has enacted such laws as we have just referred to, or rather the prohibition is in her constitution, her organic and fundamental law. How is this to be accounted for? We suppose it can only be explained on the principle that no governments have been more jealous of every thing which might overthrow their institutions, than those which have been most free. This was illustrated by the republics of Greece and Rome, in reference to slavery, as well as some other subjects. Nor should this be astonishing. Free governments cannot tolerate obstacles which a concentrated despotism can control, for they have not the power which despotism can wield at its will. Besides, the more precious a possession is, the more watchfully will it be guarded, against even imaginary changes. Such considerations may possibly have influenced the minds of the framers of the constitution of Norway, and induced them to exclude the Jesuits. But why the Jews should be excluded it is not so easy to discern, as they have not been given to politics; nor have they been disturbers of the repose of any nation for many ages. We suppose that the consideration which prevailed in reference to them was that they are injurious as a class of citizens, on account of their clannish disposition, as well as their incessant attempts at obtaining wealth by fraud in one way and another,—a characteristic of that degraded and hated race, which the persecutions of Christians have ingrained in them, because they shut up from them for ages, the channels of honest gain.

A portion of the Laplanders, in the north part of Norway, are heathens, and have resisted the efforts—few and feeble we fear—made in times past, to convert them to Christianity. Attempts are now making to introduce the Gospel among those portions of that people who are still destitute of its light and its hopes. A most worthy and devoted minister of the Gospel has been laboring for years among them, for the promotion of this noble object. He is known by the name of Pastor Stockfleth. This excellent man left Christiania on the morning of the day on which we arrived in the afternoon. Our regret was not little at finding that we could have no opportunity of seeing this modern apostle to the Laplanders. He had visited Christiania, Stockholm, and St. Petersburg, for the purpose of procuring the means of printing the New Testament and some other books in the language of that people; and he had just completed his object, printed his books, and set out upon his return to Lapland, on the very day of our arrival. Few men in the world have we desired more earnestly to see, than this worthy, self-denying man, who was once an advocate, as well as a captain in the Norwegian army, and now, and for several years past, a faithful missionary of the Cross. May his life be spared many years, to spread the glorious light of the Gospel amid the moral darkness which reigns in the Hyperborean region whither he has set out to return! And may others be raised up to labor with him in his benevolent and important enterprise!

From all that we could learn, we are inclined to believe that the state of religion in Norway is far from being what we might hope from a well educated ministry, if faithful to their holy vocation. The parishes are entirely too large. From two to five thousand souls is the estimate made for these parishes, in reference to assistants and the increase of the number of parishes. That is to say,

if a parish has less than 2,000 souls it must have one pastor; if it has more than 2,000 and less than 5,000 souls, it may have a pastor and an assistant, or two pastors: if the number of souls be more than 5,000, then there may be a division of the parish into two. Now it is easy to see that a large portion of the population are likely to be neglected, in such a country as Norway, where it is so sparse, and where a parish of even 2,000 souls, or the half of it, must often cover a very large space of ground, and render it impossible for all to attend at the parish church, even though all the peasants or country-people, as Mr. Laing asserts, possess horses, and take delight in riding to church.* Some of the largest parishes have more than one church or place of worship, and in those cases the pastor has an assistant or chaplain, or there are two pastors. There are parishes in the north, which are fifty miles long and ten wide!

What is still worse, if possible, is that the churches being connected with the government, and controlled by it, even to the appointing of the pastors, no dissent has been allowed, and therefore no efforts can be made by a ministry independent of the state to supply the wants of the

* In many of the large towns and principal cities of Norway, the provision which is made by the state for public worship is wholly inadequate. Take the case of Christiania, for instance. That city has a population of 21,000 souls at the very lowest estimate which we have seen. It probably exceeds 25,000. For that population there is what is called the Cathedral Church, with three pastors and a chaplain, or assistant, and another church with one pastor; and this is all, except a little Moravian congregation, which meets in a private house, and which does not probably at any time surpass fifty persons in number. Truly there is need of dissenters in such circumstances. And when religious liberty shall have been secured in Norway, as we trust it will be before long, many years will not roll away before there will spring up in Christiania more than one chapel of dissenters, or rather of independents. This is what is now greatly needed.

establishment, and to stimulate the clergy of the established church to do their duty, as is seen in England, and render them good for any thing. And worse than all, the clergy being appointed by the government of Norway,* it has often happened that men who are unfit for the discharge of the duties of the sacred office are placed as pastors in the churches. A civil government, no matter of what form, is wholly unfit to direct this affair. It often happens, in this case, that the appointing power knows nothing about true Christianity, and places men in the churches through some species of favoritism, who are wholly incompetent to preach the Gospel, because they have not themselves experienced its power on their own hearts. Such men, it is to be feared, are too many of the pastors in Norway at the present time. They are men of good moral characters, it may be, and of fine education, but they have not experienced ~~that~~ ^{the} change of heart which the Scriptures speak of under the expression of being "born again." The consequence is that their preaching partakes of none of that ardor, that burning vehemence, that awakening energy, which forces men to forsake their sins and seek salvation with all earnestness. As might be expected, the great doctrines of the Gospel, which the unrenewed heart of man, in all ages, has hated, and ever will hate, until regenerated by the Spirit of God, are not preached by such pastors. Error glides into their own minds, and into the minds of their hearers, and after a while, all that is important in the Gospel is first omitted, and then rejected. Such preaching leads first to indiffer-

* The Bishop nominates to vacancies, and a Council of the State, or a committee of it, which is charged with this business, appoints. The proceedings of the Council in this, as in other matters, are reviewed by the Storthing, or National Legislature, at its regular sessions, which occur once in three years, as we state elsewhere.

ence, and ultimately to infidelity, wherever it prevails. And this we fear is too much the case in Norway at this day.* Things are, however, growing better. The worst is past, we are inclined to think. The Professors of Theology in the University at Christiania, where the Norwegian young candidates for the ministry now pursue their studies, are evangelical in their doctrines, and faithful in their instructions. Much is doing—though not all that ought to be done—to circulate the sacred Scriptures and good religious books or tracts among the people.

What is very encouraging, is that many of the clergy are faithful men. Such is the excellent bishop Buggé, of the Diocese of Trondheim; such are the pastors of the churches at Christiania,—among whom we may name the good Dr. Wexel, as being *primus inter pares*, first among his equals. In all parts of the kingdom are to be found some excellent ministers of the gospel, who understand its nature, and feel its power in their own hearts. What is still more cheering, is that there is a determination on the part of the Storthing, or parliament of Norway, to give to the people more religious liberty. A law has been passed twice in that body, we are informed, to take

* The infidelity of the French school of Philosophy has extended its baleful influences even into the distant parts of Norway. A very devoted and excellent German christian, who had been an officer in the Prussian army, we believe, devoted himself some years ago to the work of distributing the Scriptures and Religious Tracts along the fiords and in the mountain valleys of the northern part of Norway. He found much infidelity among the people, and even translations of some of Voltaire's worst writings circulating in those benighted regions. It is affecting to think how efficient is the great enemy of good, and how unceasing his efforts to ruin men. There is sometimes a cruelty in evil doing, which is truly diabolical. Such, for instance, as that endeavoring to promote infidelity among a simple-hearted, ignorant and poor people, and thus destroying the happiness and the hopes which the Gospel brings to man, whilst nothing better is given in its stead.

away from the government the appointment of the pastors and assistants, and give it to the churches. Twice has this law been passed, and twice has it been vetoed by the king. Should it pass at the next meeting of the Storthing, of which there is every prospect, it will become a law of the land. This will be a great point gained. But this is not all. A bill has been twice passed in the Storthing—we believe it forms a supplement of the bill of which we have just spoken—which allows the holding of meetings in private houses, or elsewhere, for religious services, without the permission or intervention of any civil authority. This bill will become a law, it is expected, at the next session of the Storthing, which will occur in 1842. Should that be so, a wide and effectual door will be opened for the spread of the Truth, in a way which will be very efficient. Little meetings for reading the Scriptures, and for other modes of giving religious instruction, will then be held in places where hitherto it has not been possible to do so.

Something of this kind has been going on during the last ten or fifteen years, through efforts which a farmer of the name of Hans Houga, who lived in the vicinity of Christiania, commenced, and which have been continued by "Hans Houga's people," as his followers have been termed, until this day.

This Hans Houga was a man of no ordinary mind or character. Having become a devoted Christian himself, he began to feel deeply for the low state of religion in his country. He instituted meetings among the peasants, or country-people of his neighborhood, for reading the Scriptures, singing, prayer and exhortation. Finding that these meetings were useful, he traveled into various parts of the kingdom and instituted similar meetings. In some places he was well received by the clergy; but much oftener he was opposed by them, as well as by the civil authorities. Still he went on, encountering not a

little opposition, and even persecution. He continued to labor steadfastly until the day of his death. He was a man of some property, and had the leisure requisite for his pious enterprise. Since his death, the good work has gone on, not perhaps with the same energy as when it had his supervision and guidance.

These meetings for reading the Scriptures are not held during the hours of the public services in the churches. Hans Houga formed no sect. His "people," as they are termed, have not attempted to separate from the parish churches, and no schism has taken place. In this they have acted wisely. Their only object has been to increase true piety among the people and the churches, by the use of such means as lay within their power, and such as it was lawful, by the word of God, for them to employ.

In concluding this chapter we will add that the principles of the Friends have made some progress, amid much opposition, in some districts along the western coast of this kingdom. This has been owing to the fact that some Norwegians, who were taken prisoners in the war between England and Denmark, in the period from 1807 to 1814, having been carried into England, there learned these principles from some Friends, whose acquaintance they made. Upon their return to Norway they propagated them in the places where they afterwards resided. In this way these principles have taken root, and have spread somewhat. But we believe that no organized societies have been yet formed, though small meetings are held in private houses. We had the pleasure of meeting one or two of these Norwegian Quakers, and were much pleased with their simplicity of character and manner, as well as their sincere piety.

CHAPTER V.

GENERAL NOTICES OF NORWAY.

Norway well governed while a subject to Denmark—History of its disruption from that kingdom—Dissatisfaction at being attached to Sweden—This dissatisfaction disappearing—Copenhagen regarded still as the literary capital of Norway; Stockholm its political—Topography of Norway remarkable—Its mountain ranges—Its Fjords; their character and origin—The Fjelds; their nature—Mountain ranges—The soil on the Fjelds—Inhabitants of the shores of the fjords and valleys—An account of the udal system in Norway—The character which it necessarily gives to the people—Division of property which it occasions—Has a limit—Description of a Norwegian farm—Its village of houses—Productions of Norway—Exports and imports—Commerce and shipping of Norway increasing—Finances of Norway—Bank—Currency—Statistics of the rural economy of Norway—Roads and bridges—Trade between the northern portions of Sweden and Norway—Mr. Laing's opinion of the intentions of Russia—Absurd—Administration of Justice in Norway—Court of Agreement—Sorenskriver's Court—Stift's Amt-court—Hoieste-Ret—Lag-Ting reviews the decisions of the Hoieste-Ret, and tries the Judges—A remarkable peculiarity in the Norwegian administration of law—Judge responsible for his decisions—Mr. Laing's account of the understanding of the Norwegian horses—Norwegian hospitality—Cheap fare—Different races of men in Norway, Germanic, and Ouralian or Scythian.

In a preceding chapter we have given the history of Norway until its union with Denmark. That union lasted more than four hundred years. During that period the country was, in the main, well governed by the Danes. But on the 3d of March, 1813, Great Britain entered into a treaty with Sweden, by which Norway was to be taken from Denmark and added to the latter, as well as the island of Guadeloupe returned to her, (a portion of the agreement which was never fulfilled,) and the sum of one million of pounds sterling paid as a subsidy. Sweden, on her part, agreed, for these considerations, to join the allies in their war against Napoleon. By the treaty of Kiel, Jan.

14th, 1814, made by England and Sweden on the one side, with Denmark on the other, Norway was ceded to Sweden, has ever since remained attached to it, and forms a constituent part of the united kingdom of Sweden and Norway.

To this union the Norwegians were, at first, greatly opposed. Nor should this appear strange. A community of interests and of language, a correspondence of wants and of productions, and an extensive individual and family connection, bound the two countries together. Besides, the Swedes had been their old, their hereditary enemies. Their border strifes and bloody wars, where the Norse and the Goths—as the ancient inhabitants of Norway and Sweden were called—met in deadly affray on the banks of the Glommen, and often stained its waters with each other's blood, were but too well remembered. But resistance was vain. The Norwegians were compelled to lay down their arms and submit to terms which England and Russia were prepared to enforce. By degrees the people have become reconciled to the measure, and the wise course which the present king of Sweden has pursued, has contributed greatly to bring about this result. At this time, we believe, the great majority of the nation are perfectly contented with this union. They cannot, however, avoid looking upon Copenhagen as their literary capital, whilst Stockholm is their political. It is from the former that they receive still the greater part of the books which they read, though Christiania is doing much to supply the literary wants of the country; and by her numerous journals, and the increasing number of her presses, is bidding fair, in time, to diminish greatly, if not to destroy entirely, the literary dependence of Norway upon Denmark.

The topography of Norway is very remarkable. A range of mountains, of varying width, reaches from the southern end of the country almost to the extreme north-

ern point of it. This range of mountains separates the waters which flow into the Baltic, and its estuaries the Cattegat and Skaggerack, from those which fall into the Northern Atlantic ocean. The highest summits of this range of mountains are supposed to be Skagstøls-Tind and Sneehætten, which are, the former 7,600, and the latter 7,100 feet in height. Sneehætten is nearly on the direct route from Christiania to Trondheim; the Skagstøls-Tind is further south in the range. Both are covered with snow, at least as to their summits and highest parts of their sides, during the greater portion of the year. Nor is this wonderful considering their northern position. In the northern part of its course this mountainous range divides Norway from Sweden; and it becomes less high as it approaches towards the North Cape, the most northern extremity of the continent of Europe.

From this mountain-range, on the side of Norway, flow down many streams, most of which are small, but rapid in their course, until they approach the ocean, or the Skaggerack, where they expand into wide fiords; whilst the entire coast is belted with islands, composed either of naked granite rocks, or with stunted pine and hemlock timber. The country lying between the mountain range and the seas into which the streams flow, can hardly be said to be level in any part. In the southern part, however, it may be said to have this character much more than in the northern half of the country, for there the high abrupt hills, or rather mountain spurs, which detach themselves from the great chain, run down to the very verge of the sea, in many cases. So that, take it all in all, Norway presents but a small surface fit for cultivation in comparison with its entire extent. But if it has but few fertile plains, of any considerable area, it has innumerable valleys which have a fine soil, and are well cultivated; still its barren hills and

mountains composed of granite, of gneiss, and of other rocks, together with its fiords, occupy incomparably more of its surface. It is a wild romantic country to the eye of the spectator who surveys it from its innumerable heights. It would seem as if there could not be much cultivatable land in the entire country which has not been brought under the plough or the spade; yet there is some progress made every year in diminishing the domain of uncultivated nature. It is probable, however, that the most that can now be done to increase the agricultural productions of Norway, must be effected more through improved processes of tilling the land, than by enlarging the extent which is already cultivated.

One of the most remarkable features in the geological aspect of Norway is the ~~existence~~ and character of what are called its fiords. They are exceedingly numerous. We will make a description of them more intelligible by causing the reader to approach them from the ocean, rather than to look down upon them from the heights of the Norwegian Alps,—which would seem to be the more simple course.

Let him then keep in mind that the entire coast of Norway, from the Cattegat, round the southern projection of it, along the whole western side, and even round the North Cape until we reach the Finnish shores, is bordered by a wide fringe of islands. These islands are almost innumerable. As you approach them from the sea, you are struck with the fact that they lie so low. The outer line of them consists indeed of naked rocks, which seem as if they had but recently emerged, to a partial degree, from their watery beds. Not a vestige of vegetation is to be seen upon them. As you enter between them, and still more as you make progress through them towards the mainland, you perceive that the islands become larger in size, more elevated in height, and the summits and

sides of some of them begin to be covered with short pine, juniper, and other shrubs, and a low vegetation of ferns. As you advance, you find that they become covered with larger trees and a deeper vegetable mould; and some of them are inhabited. After a while, you will find that you have gotten through this island-zone, and reached the continent. It is not, however, always easy to know this, for there is no perceptible difference in the height of the mainland and of the islands which adjoin it.

When you approach the main land, in certain points, you will enter bays or fiords, as they are called. Some of these are small, only extending a few miles into the country. Others are more like little, narrow coves. But not a few extend a great distance into the interior, and are outlets of some river, or small stream, which flows down from the mountainous upland. In some cases these fiords are narrow from their very junction with the ocean, or rather their entrance into it, and for a great distance preserve nearly the same width. But in most cases they are wide at their mouths, and grow narrower as one ascends them. As they abound in many places with islands, their true shape and width are not always ascertained with ease.

How these fiords were formed, is a question which it is not easy to answer. That they are channels, which the streams that fall into them have worn, is not credible; for the streams are often not large, nor do they flow down from a country sufficiently elevated to give them a momentum, especially in their lower course, great enough to wear out channels, through rocks which are chiefly of a primitive character. On the contrary, these fiords have nothing of the character of a channel about them; but rather resemble (what they are,) long and sluggish bays, which lie not far beneath the surface of the land, along the portions of them which are nearest to the ocean, but which are very far beneath that surface, as one approaches

the remoter ends, far in the interior, and amidst the mountain ridges of the Norwegian Alps. In these ~~regions~~, these bays or fiords are completely sheltered from the winds, and are subject to no movement, save what is caused by the ebb and flow of the tides.

The true theory respecting the formation of these fiords, is, that they are the natural chasms, which have been created by the heaving up of the earth in these parts. For it is now a point very nearly settled, we apprehend, that the surface of the earth has been made to appear, and has received its peculiar outlines, from the action of some hidden force—probably heat—which has caused an expansion of the solid, and formerly submerged parts of the globe, and a heaving of them up through the waters which once covered them. That this process is going on in several places in the Scandinavian region, is certain, as we shall state in another place. In this way the origin of these fiords, as well as of the valleys which often run at right angles to them, may be accounted for, as well as the conformation which both possess.

Every one who has read much of Norway, has probably met the word *Fjelde*, (or *Fjelds*, as the Norwegians spell it,—pronouncing it precisely as if it were written *fee-yelds*,) as applied to the mountains of that country, and may not have a very definite idea of what it means. We hear of the great *Dovre Fjeld*, which one crosses in going from Christiania to ~~Trondheim~~. We read of others, not less celebrated, in other parts of the kingdom. Now, these *Fjelds* are nothing more than the mountain ridges themselves; and if they have ever a more limited meaning, they denote the summits of the mountain ridge, or the comparatively level surfaces which are sometimes found on the tops of the mountain ranges. But in order to make this matter more clear, we would say, that the reader, when he thinks of the mountain ranges in Norway, must

not form the idea in his mind that these ranges are always steep and precipitous on their sides. This is not so. They often—and especially in the southern part of the kingdom—rise by a rather gradual ascent; and when you get on the summit level, you can hardly persuade yourself that you are on a mountain at all, for the appearance, almost far and wide, is that of a plain. To be sure, it is not a plain in reality, for the surface is uneven, and even high hills, or mountain peaks, or knolls, rise up within the scene. The celebrated mountain called the Sneehætten, stands on the Dovre Fjeld, and when seen by one standing on that Fjeld, and at the distance of a few miles, it seems to have no great height. Nor has it a great relative height, for it is perhaps only four thousand feet above the summit of the Dovre Fjeld; but then the plateau of the Dovre Fjeld is three thousand feet and more above the level of the ocean. This gives the summit of Sneehætten an elevation of more than 7,000 feet above the ocean, as we have stated elsewhere.

We have said, in the preceding paragraph, that the ascent of the mountain ranges, or Fjelds, is sometimes gradual. It is very often far otherwise, especially in the northern parts of the kingdom. There, one finds steep precipices, covered with woods, which overhang the dark abyss of some fearful ravine. In some places, the interstices of the cliffs are filled with perpetual glaciers, and the loud cry of the eagle alone interrupts the silence of the desert. The thaws of the spring cause awful disruptions, and the falling of masses of rocks creates the most alarming noises. Crags and pinnacles often fall down, many hundred fathoms, into a vast and yawning chasm. The vestiges of one of these awful phenomena are to be seen at Steenbræ, part of the Fillefield, in Laerdal, where a bridge has been constructed, with vast labor, over the fallen masses which almost block up the river. Indeed,



A VIEW IN NORWAY.

STEENRÆ.

A remarkable scene in Lærdal, to the north of Trondheim, which gives a good idea of the many fearful passes in the mountainous parts of Norway.

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throughout the whole extent of Norway, and particularly in the northern half of it, the same rugged and fantastic scenery is seen. Sometimes the habitations of the peasants are perched up in most elevated situations, on the brink of precipices, which the priest encounters great difficulty and danger in visiting. Pontoppidan says, that, in some of those situations, when a funeral occurs, the corpse has to be let down with ropes, or carried on a man's back, before it can be placed in the coffin. In such districts, roads are often built on lofty piles, across ravines, or suspended by chains fastened to bolts driven into the rocks. The inhabitants of these desolate and awful regions are engaged in cutting and floating down timber. They are the "Norwegian back-woodsmen."

As a general thing, it may be said, that there is very little land fit for cultivation on these Fjelds. Occasionally there are spots of some extent which might be tilled. But these are better fit for grass than for grain. These Fjelds furnish extensive grazing grounds for cattle, during the summer, and are so used. The forests which grow on them are chiefly stunted pines, hemlocks, junipers, together with an undergrowth of bushes of various sorts, and not a few briars of one species and another. The fine Norwegian pines, which are so celebrated, do not grow on the Fjelds, but are to be found along the shores of the fiords, and in the valleys, where the soil is rich, and where they are sheltered from the violence of the winds. In these situations, this tree attains often to a great size, and becomes fit to be the mast of some huge galley, or man of war's ship. But even this tree is not found in all its grandeur much to the north of 63° or 64° of latitude. Beyond that parallel, it becomes too small to be very valuable, as an article of timber. It may serve, and does serve, for fire-wood, and for small building materials, far north of that point.

Norway presents an aspect, so far as regards its agricultural population, the very converse of what one sees in France. For, instead of being collected together in villages, as is the case to so great a degree in France, it is to be found dispersed throughout the innumerable valleys, and along the shores of the fiords, in all parts of the kingdom. Of course, there must be no small amount of the population which lives in very retired, and solitary, and almost inaccessible situations. As one advances towards the north, the distance from the mountain ridges down to the ocean becomes less and less. There the fiords lie in chasms, rather than in the midst of wide valleys. The cultivated spots become both less in extent and fewer in number, until they disappear altogether, and leave the population grouped in villages at the mouths of the fiords, and wholly occupied in trade, of which fish, and rein-deer's meat, and rein-deer's skins, are the staple. On those remote and inhospitable shores, the people live chiefly on meat, and especially on fish. And to such a degree does this diet prevail, that its use, united with their unclean habits, gives them a fishy odour that is far from being agreeable.

Norway is emphatically a land of rocks. Go where you will, look where you will, the grey sides of rocks of granite, of gneiss, of hornblend, of micaceous schist, meet your eye. Even in the valleys, and along the most pleasant and widest shores of the fiords, the rocks, of all shapes and sizes, ever and anon raise up their heads, as if they were starting out of their beds. In some cases they lie wholly on the surface, and have rolled down from some higher position, in by-gone times. It results from the physical character of the country, that it is not an easy thing to find a field any where of twenty acres of perfectly smooth and clear land. The farms, too, are almost always small.

There is another cause for this. Norway, there is reason to believe, was ever free from the feudal system. For

a thousand years, it would seem, it has been the law of this country to divide the landed property among the children. The Danes did indeed try to introduce the practice of entailing property ; but it did not succeed. It was contrary to the usages, and consequently to the feelings, of the people. This division of property has had a great influence upon the character of the people. It has given them self-respect, self-consequence, if you will, and a feeling of independence, which no nation can have to an equal degree where the land is in the hands of a few, and the masses have no permanent property.* There may be

* The number of proprietors of lands, in proportion to the rest of the inhabitants, is greater in Norway than it is in any other country in Europe. In 1819, the population of the country was 910,000, and the number of proprietors was reckoned to be 41,656, which is at the rate of one in every twenty-two, possessing an actual property in the soil. The income of these landholders is generally small in comparison with that of the same class in many other countries. The produce of their farms is chiefly consumed in the family, except what is required for paying taxes, or bartered for such articles of domestic use as cannot be raised at home.

The Norwegian land-proprietors generally live in great comfort, and are neither poor nor rich, but possess enough of this world to enable them to live well, as their fathers before them did, during more than a thousand years.

The tenure of their property is not feudal, but *udal*, or *odel*; that is, their land holds of no superior, not even of the king; and consequently it is subject to none of the burdens, fines, or other exactions which affect, more or less, all property held by feudal tenure, either from the sovereign or his vassal. In such a state of society, there existed no legal necessity for the law of primogeniture, or for giving a preference to the eldest male heir as a successor.

All the kindred of the Norwegian *udaller*, or proprietor in his own right, have a certain claim or interest in the estate, called the *odelshaarn-ret*, or birth-right, which entitles them to redeem it, if sold or alienated, on repaying the purchase money. But the effect of this system is not to give equal inheritance to all the children. The sons have portions double of those of the daughters. When

evils in the subdivision of land ; but they correct themselves. When carried to such an extent as to render it impossible for people to live on the small shares that fall to them by inheritance, the remedy is simple and easily found, and requires no legislation. Some will sell out to others, and go into some other employment. We see this in Norway. We have said that farms are small ; but they are always large enough to support a family. Whilst many farms consist of only 50 or 60 acres, it is not an uncommon thing to find others of three and four hundred acres, a part of which is under good cultivation, and a part—on the sides of the hills which bound the valley in which it lies,—which serve for woodland and for pasturage. It is, however, very common for the farmers, whether the tract of land on which they live be large or small, to own a large extent of land on the *Fjelds* which are nearest to them, whither they send their cattle to graze during the summer, under the care of herdsmen, who live in cabins erected for the purpose, and there look after the cattle, the sheep and goats, which are entrusted to them, and protect them from the wolves and bears. Commonly several of these herdsmen and herdswomen live in a group, in order to render each other help, if needed, and still more to make the time pass pleasantly away. And in many cases, without doubt, they contrive to make it pass merrily enough.

The houses in Norway, whether in city, village, or country, are almost all of wood. In the country, they are often of round logs. But they are oftener of frames, especially in the denser settlements. And nothing

no will is made, the law divides equally among the male heirs, the real and personal property. But the patrimonial estate descends to his eldest son, as sole possessor, liable of course to pecuniary burdens for the shares of the other heirs. And when these obligations cannot be met by him, then the estate must be sold.

surprises one more than to see the number of them which go to make up the establishment of a farmer in this country. In fact every farm seems to have a sort of village. First there is the house of the proprietor, and then in the rear of this, around a hollow square, there are almost a dozen houses of one kind or another—such as stables for the horses, stables for the cows, stables for the sheep and goats, a barn, wood-houses, milk-houses, &c. &c. And although they are unpainted, generally, and have a rough exterior, yet in no other land are horses and cows and all the domestic animals better cared for.*

The family room, or the room where the whole household meet from time to time, is large; and it needs to be so, for divers domestic operations often go on in it, such as the carding of wool or flax and the spinning of it, making of quilts and bed-covers, &c., whilst on almost every farm,—we might speak without any qualification, of the large farms,—there is a house for a loom, and generally for two or three. No people manufacture more among themselves than do the Norwegians.

The gardens are filled with such vegetables as will grow in the several portions of the country—cabbage, beets, onions, potatoes, &c., and there is almost always a corner for hops, with which to brew the domestic beer.

The agricultural productions of Norway are rye, wheat, (in the southern part), barley, buckwheat, potatoes and oats. The last named vegetable is raised in abundance, and is used for food, the hull being ground fine with the grain. Rye is used for bread also, and is baked in thin

* Another cause which augments the number of houses on the farms in Norway is the practice of renting small houses, each surrounded with a few acres, or enough to feed a couple of cows, a half dozen sheep, &c., to some two or three poor tenants, under the condition that they must work a certain number of days in the year for the proprietor in order to pay their rent. The remainder of their time they have to devote to their few acres, or to labor for other people.

and hard cakes. Wheaten bread is comparatively rare, except in the towns and cities, and even there it is not in general use. In the north, and especially in seasons of great scarcity, the fine inside bark of the pine and other trees is kiln-dried and ground up with rye and oats, and used as food. Nor is it destitute of nutritious matter. And although Norway raises more grain than she formerly did, she is under the necessity of importing bread-stuffs every year from Denmark and Germany. The potato is of recent introduction into Norway, but it is destined to be the most useful of all vegetables. In the southern part of the kingdom, apples, pears, cherries ripen well; and in gardens, apricots, peaches, and melons are cultivated. Wild strawberries grow even far to the north and are abundant.

The exports of Norway consist chiefly of timber, bark, tar, fish, and iron. Of these, timber and fish are by far the most important. The imports are coffee, teas, sugar, tobacco, wine, French brandy, salt, wheat, rye, oats, hemp, all sorts of manufactured goods, and tropical fruits.

The mineral products of Norway are not considerable. Her iron and copper have for twenty years found a foreign market, and it is hoped that by means of improved processes for smelting, this branch of industry may improve. The silver mines of Kongsberg, which the Storting would have sold in 1827 and 1830, if the opposition of the king had not prevented, for 70,000 species dollars, yielded in seven years from 1830 till 1837, the sum of 700,000 species dollars, after paying all expenses.

The shipping of Norway has increased rapidly within the last ten years. The number of her vessels is now supposed to exceed 2,200, and her seamen are more than 12,000.

The finances of Norway are in a flourishing state. Her national debt is now nearly, if not quite, extinguished.

Her currency is good. She has a public bank established at Trondheim, with branches at Christiania, Bergen and Christiansand. Its capital consists of two millions of species dollars, in transferable shares, which command a high premium. It issues notes of 100, 50, 10, 5 dollars, and down to 1. The smaller notes are printed on white paper; those of 5 dollars on blue; of 10 on yellow; and of 50 on green. The species dollar is the principal silver coin, which is divided into 120 skillings. It is equal to two rigs-bank dollars, or about 4s. 4½d sterling, or nearly one American dollar. There are pieces of 60 skillings, or half a species dollar; of 24 skillings; and of eight skillings. There is also a small change called skilling-mint. There is no gold currency. The bank discounts bills, advances money on mortgages, or landed securities, at 4 per cent., but allows no interest on deposits.

The population of Norway is increasing steadily at present. In 1825 it was 1,051,318 souls, which was an increase of 164,662 since 1815. In 1836 it was estimated at nearly 1,200,000, or about 150,000 more than it was in 1825.

The statistics of the rural economy of Norway are interesting. According to M. Hagelström, not more than the 115th part of the entire surface of the kingdom is under cultivation, the annual produce of which is stated at 2,650,000 tons—a quantity insufficient for the sustenance of the inhabitants. The formation of Agricultural and Patriotic societies is leading to improvements in agriculture. But the peasants are slow to admit of innovations upon old plans and processes. The increase and distillation of rye and potatoes is an evil unquestionably, notwithstanding all that Mr. Laing says to the contrary. It causes a wasteful expenditure of grain, which might be sent to the market, and creates no return, except in a way that is pernicious to the health and morals of the people. The introduction of Tem-

perance societies into this country, we hope, produce good effects before long. They have but just commenced to exist and to operate.

The roads are rough, but good, in Norway. A great deal of attention and expense have been bestowed upon them by the government, as well as upon the bridges across the rivers and the fiords. A good road has of late years been made from Trondheim across the mountains to Sundsval on the Gulf of Bothnia. There is not a little intercourse between the people of the northern portions of Sweden and Norway, especially during the winter, when hundreds of sledges pass and repass, exchanging the interior productions of rein-deer's meat and skins, poultry, &c., for the foreign productions which are brought to Trondheim, and other ports along the coast of the Northern Atlantic Ocean. Finnish and Russian merchants are beginning to enter into the trade; and Mr. Laing thinks that Russia will one day think seriously of getting possession of the northern part of Norway. She had much better think of getting possession of the entire Baltic at once. This would be an acquisition much more to be desired by her, and much more likely to be attempted than that of such a frozen region as the north part of Norway, which, if she had it, could never enable Russia to become a great maritime power. No; we may depend upon it, if Russia ever thinks of conquering the northern part of Norway, she will be likely to go further, and acting upon the proverb that, "one may as well be hung for stealing a sheep as for a lamb," she will get possession of all Scandinavia, and make the Sound a road for her ships to the ocean.

The administration of justice is said to be very perfect in Norway. As in Denmark, there is, first of all, the Court of Agreement or conciliation, before which all civil cases must come in the first instance. The resident proprietors of each parish elect a commissioner once in three years, who holds this court once a month. In the large

towns and cities, and a clerk are also chosen. The parties must appear before this judge or arbiter, who hears the case, and tries to bring the parties to an agreement. If he succeed, the suit goes no further, unless there be something in the case which a Superior Court deems deserving of a revision. If the parties do not agree, a full written statement is made out, on which the case goes to the regular courts.

Of these regular courts, the first is that of the Sorenskriver, (or sworn writer). This judge must always be a man well instructed in the law. He holds a court in each of the parishes which constitute his district once every three months.

The next court above is the Stifts Amt-Court, or court for the province. From that court, cases criminal as well as civil may be carried by appeal to the final and highest court, that of the Hoieste-ret, which holds its sessions in Christiania for the whole kingdom. This court is one of the three estates of the constitution, and independent of the executive and legislative branches of the government. It consists of seven members, and is required to lay a protocol or record of its proceedings before the Storthing. The judges of this court may be severally impeached before the Upper House of the Storthing by the Lower House. In that case the unimpeached members act as judges, with the members of the Lagthing, or upper house of the Storthing. Norway is divided for the administration of law, into sixty-four sorenskriveries, and four stifts or provinces.

There is one thing in the administration of law in Norway which is peculiar to that country, so far as we know it is that the judge is responsible for every decision which he makes. Upon an appeal from it to a higher court, he must defend it there, and is liable, in damages, for a wrong decision. This is a most remarkable provision, nor is the law which makes it a dead letter. It is certainly a most

effective method for making judges careful and impartial. Cases of the enforcement of this law occur every year. Mr. Laing cites one where the judge in the Stifts Amt-Court of the province of Christiania was condemned by the Hoieste-ret to pay sixty dollars of damages to a private party, in a question of succession to an inheritance, not having been rightly decided upon in an appeal from the court below.

Mr. Laing praises this regulation (and we do not know that we are disposed to differ from him on this matter) as he does almost every thing else that is Norwegian, so great is his admiration of that country, its institutions and its people. We certainly agree with him in almost all his opinions about that well governed, and in the main, happy country. But Mr. L. is not content with praising the people and their institutions; he must needs even laud the habits of some of the brute creation. For instance he has the following entry in his journal: "The horses in Norway have a very sensible manner of taking their food. Instead of swilling themselves like ours with a pailful of water at a draught, no doubt from fear of not getting it soon again, and then overgorging themselves with dry food for the same reason, they have a bucket of water put down beside their allowance of hay. It is amusing to see with what relish they take a sip of the one and a mouthful of the other alternately, sometimes only moistening their mouths, as a rational being would do, while eating a dinner of much dry food." This is rather too much, good Mr. Laing. That it is possible to find a horse which has been trained to do something of the kind, or which may do so occasionally through some whim, or something else, we are not disposed to deny. But that a whole nation of horses can be found that possess such a share of understanding as to eat regularly in that sensible manner, is beyond the capacity of our faith. We do not believe a word of it.

To strangers the Norwegians are particularly kind and attentive. We have had proof of this ourselves. And it is said that the people in the interior of the country, living in patriarchal simplicity, even excel the inhabitants of the cities and large towns in the virtue of hospitality. The best of every thing which they have they are ready to share with the stranger, who demands the hospitality of their house. And though their abodes may be humble and their fare coarse, nothing will be omitted which they can do for his enjoyment. Abundance of milk, and of meat, or of fish, together with their coarse rye bread, mixed with aniseed—a practice which is almost universal among the northern nations of Europe, but which is far from giving an agreeable flavor to their bread, according to the taste of most persons who are not accustomed to it—are set before him. If it be summer, the fruits of the season—strawberries, and similar productions of their gardens and fields—are added. And all this is done with the expectation of a mere pittance of reward, if any at all. Even in hotels, the charges for meals are very low, along the chief roads and in the villages of the interior. Mr. Laing, to whom we have already referred, makes an entry in his journal to the following effect: “At my last quarters I paid a half dollar (1s. 11d.) for my dinner of eggs, strawberries and milk; my bed, and breakfast of coffee and strawberries. This, I believe, is about the general rate of expense and of fare which a traveler may expect. The rye-bread is good and substantial, the milk, cream and butter, good and clean, the cheese excellent.”

The population of Norway springs from two very different stocks. To the Germanic stock belong almost the totality of the inhabitants. Of this there can be no doubt. In common with the Danes and the Swedes, their language indicates that they are of the Teutonic family of nations. A few French, English and Germans are to be

found in Norway, settled there for a season for commercial purposes. To the Ouralian or Finnish stock, belong a very small part of the population. These are the Laplanders and the Finns. Of the former the number is not great—but how great, precisely, it is not easy to say. We have heard it estimated, by intelligent Norwegians, who have visited the portion of their country where these people live, at 6,000 souls. Of Finns, the number probably does not exceed a few thousands. They live in the little seaports in the northern part of the kingdom, and are engaged in fishing and commerce. The Laplanders and Finns are clearly of Asiatic origin. They are the remains of the aboriginal inhabitants of the entire Scandinavian region, that survived the conquest of their country by the followers of Odin. They are the lineal descendants, without doubt, of the Fenni of whom Tacitus speaks.

CHAPTER VI.

GOVERNMENT OF NORWAY.

Government of Norway constitutional, and remarkably free. Origin of their constitution—its chief features—Proscription of the Jews and Jesuits—The Storting—Consists of two houses, the Lagthing and Odelsting—Meets triennially—Mode of electing the Deputies—Veto of the King of Sweden—Distinguished men in the Storting—Norway administers her own laws as well as makes them—Has her own Army and Navy—Extent and character of both—Norwegians charged with a desire to separate from Sweden—This charge probably not true—A union of Denmark, Sweden and Norway, desirable to resist Russia.

THE government of Norway is constitutional, and decidedly the most free of all the governments of Europe. This is a remarkable fact. The people of this country have always been a bold, energetic race, and fond of freedom. The yoke of Denmark could not have been very heavy, or it would have been cast off. Their mountain air, and their life of severe toil on the fiords, or in their valleys, has always given them energy of character. And, like the Swiss, and the inhabitants of all other similarly situated countries, they have been impatient of tyranny, and desirous of freedom.

But it was not until the early part of 1814, that the suitable time for attaining it had arrived. It was after Denmark had ceded Norway, by the treaty of Kiel, to Sweden, but still hesitated to give it up, and whilst Sweden earnestly demanded the execution of that treaty, that the Constitution of Norway was made and adopted. In that season of crisis, when the Norwegians scarcely knew

what to expect, the nation convoked a meeting of representatives. This body, in number 112, met at Eidsvold on the 10th of April. They were pastors, merchants, citizens, peasants, a few lawyers, and but very few orators. They were rather men of sound, plain, common sense and good judgment, assembled for a great purpose—nor did they prove unequal to the task assigned them. A true spirit of liberty and patriotism pervaded their breasts, and to promote the best interests of their country was their simple and sole aim. A Committee of 15 persons was nominated, to whom the task of preparing the sketch of a Constitution was assigned. This Committee, taking the celebrated Constitution made by the Cortes of Spain in 1812, and that of the United States, as their aids, if not their guides, drew up the form of a Constitution, which was discussed, modified, and adopted in the course of six weeks; so that Norway, which was under an unlimited monarchy in the beginning of April, found herself in the possession of a Constitution more liberal than the Charte of France, or the Magna Charta of England, before the end of May.

We can only indicate some of the most important features of this Constitution, and omit all minor details.

The first article declares that Norway is a free, independent, and indivisible state, united to Sweden under one and the same king.

The second proscribes, for ever, the residence of Jews and Jesuits in the kingdom of Norway.*

* Nor is this article in the Constitution of Norway a dead letter. It is only a few years since the Storting needed money on loan, and a rich Jewish banker of Copenhagen went up to Christiania to negotiate about the matter. But he was not permitted, we have been assured, to set his foot on shore. He was waited on by a Committee, on board the steam-boat; the bargain was there arranged; his money was accepted; and he was under the necessity of returning in the vessel by which he came, without having had

The press is declared to be free.

The power of the king is extremely limited in every thing which concerns the great interests of Norway. He must always have near him a minister and two councillors of state, chosen from Norway. Their duty is to protest, *vivâ voce*, and by writing, against every measure which he may take that conflicts, in their opinion, with the spirit of the constitution of Norway. A case of this sort occurred in 1836, when the king resolved to dissolve the Storting of Norway, for their refusing to adopt some measure which he desired. On that occasion, the two Norwegian councillors of state protested against it, and the minister approved. The Storting arraigned the minister, and fined him 1,000 species dollars—or a little less than \$1,000 of the currency of the United States. What is remarkable, the minister, after having undergone the sentence, was allowed to remain at his post, as before.

The real government of Norway is the Storting. It assembles once in three years, except in extraordinary cases, when the king thinks it proper to convoke it. It is formed in the following manner:—

All the Norwegians of 25 years of age, and who are now, or have been public functionaries—all those who, during the last five years, have farmed a piece of registered land—all who possess a property in a city, or port, of the value of about \$150 of American money, may vote for electors.

In the country, the electors meet at the parish church, and the pastor presides; in the cities the magistrates preside at their meetings.

In the country, one elector is chosen for every hundred inhabitants; in the cities, two. These electors choose an opportunity of promenading in the streets of the goodly capital, or of receiving the civilities of its inhabitants. This was absolutely too bad.

the deputies to the Storting. The same disproportion of one to two exists in the number of deputies to be chosen by the country and the cities. The whole number of deputies chosen cannot be less than seventy-five, nor more than one hundred. Every Norwegian of thirty years of age, who has resided ten years in the country, may be chosen a deputy. The only exceptions are—the members of the Council of State, the public functionaries, and the officers of the court who receive a salary.

All the deputies united form what is called the Storting, or Parliament; and they are chosen for three years.

The Storting is divided into two Chambers or Houses, by the Storting choosing, at its first meeting, one-fourth of its entire number to form the Upper House, or Second Chamber, called the Lagthing; the remaining three-fourths constitute the Odelsting, or first chamber. The Odelsting discusses and votes any forms or projects of laws; the Lagthing accepts or rejects. The one is the House of Commons; the second is the House of Lords.

If the project of a law has been twice proposed to the Lagthing and twice rejected by it, the whole diet or Storting comes together, and two-thirds of the votes decide the definitive rejection or adoption of the proposed law.

Every bill or project of a law must be submitted to the royal sanction. But if the Storting, at three different sessions, adopt a resolution or bill, it then becomes a law of the State, notwithstanding the royal veto. This requires, as will be perceived, a period of six years, for it requires three different Storthings.

A case of this sort actually happened in 1821. The Storting had, at its sessions of 1815 and 1818, voted the abolition of all titles of nobility in Norway, or rather, that they should cease with the death of those who then had them. Twice had the king vetoed the measure. The time for the third vote arrived. The king came on

to Christiania, and employed all the means in his power to prevent its adoption. Six thousand troops were there undergoing their annual exercises. But all was in vain. The Storthing was immoveable, the vote was repeated, and the nobility of Norway passed, or was doomed soon to pass, off the scene.

Another case is now in progress. It relates to religious liberty, and has already been noticed. Twice has the Storthing voted the bill, and twice has the king withheld his sanction. The next Storthing will meet in 1842. Should it approve of what the two preceding Storthings have done in this matter, religious liberty will be fully established.

The Storthing is a curious assemblage of pastors, lawyers, and men of the people. Some of the country members, or peasants, distinguish themselves by their practical intelligence, and by a simple, but forcible style of eloquence. The majority of them, however, are characterized by a narrow and parsimonious spirit. During the session the members receive each, about one dollar and a half per day, as wages, and nearly one dollar more for their lodgings and a servant. The State also pays at the rate of three horses, in posting, for each member, in coming to Christiania and returning to his home. The peasants, or country-members, by living at the cheapest rate possible whilst at Christiania, by dispensing with a servant, and by returning home in post-wagons, with one horse instead of three, contrive to make a speculation out of legislation, and to carry home with them considerable sums to be laid out in augmenting their lands, in multiplying their horses and cattle, or in increasing the ornaments of their wives and daughters. Whilst the other members, who are not generally quite so economical in their habits, carry little more money with them from the Storthing than what is sufficient to take them home.

The men of the most distinguished talent in the Storting, as public speakers, are Messrs. Foss, Sörensen, and Riddervold. Mr. Foss is a distinguished advocate of Christiania. Perhaps as an advocate at the bar, he has no equal in Norway. He is captain of a fine company of artillery-men. His name is very famous throughout all Norway, for he is an intrepid leader of the opposition. Mr. Sörensen is perhaps quite as much of a parliamentary orator as Captain Foss, and probably has more influence, from the weight of his character. He belongs also to the opposition. Riddervold is a man of distinguished talents, and of much influence in the Storting.

From the sketch which we have given of the powers of the Storting and of the independent spirit which that body possesses, it is obvious that Norway does in reality enjoy a large measure of liberty. In fact, the government is almost an independent one in every respect. Yet there is no want of loyalty towards the common sovereign. The Norwegians love the good old king of Sweden, and they have reason to do so, for he is really one of the best monarchs in the world. But much as they love him, they will show him, occasionally, that their will and not his, is paramount in all matters which touch their important interests.

As the kingdom of Norway makes its own laws, so it also administers them. The kingdom is divided into 17 bailiwicks, or districts, included in the three great divisions of the state, Söndenfields, Nordenfields, and Nordlandens. The administration of justice, in all its series of lowest, middle and higher courts, is said to be excellent. Some details on that subject have been given in another place.

Norway has its own treasury, administered by officers appointed by the Storting, and accountable to that body alone. Over this branch of the public affairs of the king-

dom, as over all others, the governor, or viceroy, appointed by the king, and who is his representative, has no influence that is worthy of mention. The late governor was Count Jarlberg, one of the most distinguished of the Norwegian nobility, and greatly esteemed by the nation for his many good qualities.

Norway has its own army, which, though not large,—consisting of only 14,295 troops,—is well disciplined. The men have a fine soldier-like appearance. They serve for five years, we believe, and are taken by conscription or lot. The militia of the kingdom is also considerably disciplined every year, and could soon be formed into a strong body of national guards. The Norwegians have ever had a distinguished reputation for bravery. Fortunately for them, they have not had occasion to demonstrate it for a long period. They have a good many fortresses. But in fact they need but few artificial means of defence against almost any force which may be brought against them, for their country is nothing but a series of natural fortresses, which, with a little effort, can be rendered impregnable.

The Norwegians are also forming a navy of their own. In some recent work, which we have read, relating to Norway, it is stated that the Norwegian navy consists of only a few gun-boats. This is a mistake. Within the last few years, they have built a frigate, two or three corvets, as many brigs, and as many schooners. They have besides these vessels, which are all in actual service, about two hundred gun-boats, which are mostly under shelter. It is probable that they will, before long, build some steamships or batteries, for the defence of their fiords. No country is susceptible of a better defence from armaments of this sort than Norway. There are now some six or seven steam-boats in that country, running to different points; and that number will be annually augmented. These

steam-boats are, however, not for war, but are wholly engaged in commerce, and in carrying passengers.

The Norwegian vessels of war which we have seen are extremely well-built ships, and are manned by as good officers and seamen as the continent of Europe can produce.

It has been thought by many, that the people of Norway are preparing to separate from Sweden, and become entirely independent of that country. A fear of this occurrence certainly prevails to some extent in Sweden. But we think that there is no good foundation for it. We are persuaded that there is no intention of the sort entertained by the leading minds in Norway. They highly value the union which binds them to Sweden. And perhaps the fear of a Great Power which lies beyond Sweden, and in presence of which Denmark quakes, and Sweden herself is uneasy, may operate to make Norway cleave more closely than ever, to the country with whose destinies hers are at present united. Such, we are sure, will be the case. It would be folly to divide and subdivide in the presence of that overwhelming power to which we have alluded, and which may one day conquer the whole, and will certainly have no difficulty in doing so, if it find some three or four petty kingdoms occupied by the Scandinavian race instead of one. The truth is, that instead of this subdivision, Denmark, Sweden and Norway, should form but one kingdom. Their inhabitants are of the same original stock; they speak essentially the same language; they are, almost to a man, of the same type of the Protestant faith, (the Augsburg Confession,) and if united heartily, would form a very powerful kingdom. Perhaps such an event may occur. If France, and England, and Prussia too, will consult for their own true interests, to say nothing of those of constitutional liberty, they will labor

to bring about this event. By doing so they would erect one of the most important barriers, to limit that desire for boundless aggrandizement with which Russia is charged, which could by any combination be formed. The Swedes, Norwegians and Danes, are brave soldiers and excellent seamen. United they would be very powerful, especially if Finland should be recovered from the Autocrat of all the Russias.

CHAPTER VII.

RETURN FROM CHRISTIANIA TO GOTTENBURG.

Brief notices of other cities of Norway; Bergen, Trondheim, Frederikstad, Drammen, Christiansand, Alstabor, Dromsøe, Wardøehuus—Interesting routes from Christiania through different parts of Norway—Norway beginning to be visited by foreign travelers, who seek for the beautiful in scenery—Regret at leaving Christiania—Agreeable friends whom we found there—Voyage down the Fiord of Christiania to Frederiksværn—A great annoyance—A boisterous night—An alarming proposal, not accepted—Double berths—Beautiful morning—Arrival at Gottenburg—A description of that city—Its singular situation—Completely rock-bound—Objects of interest—A military review—Gottenburg first proposed as the place of meeting for the American and English plenipotentiaries—Visit of Mr. Clay.

WE have spoken of Christiania, which is the political, and in some degree the literary capital of Norway. We propose to give some notices of the other important cities and towns which this country contains, but with that brevity which the nature of this work prescribes.

BERGEN is the next city after Christiania in point of population, and is the most commercial of all the towns of Norway. It is situated on the ocean coast, and almost due west from Christiania. Its harbor is extremely difficult of access, though safe and sufficiently capacious. It is surrounded by desolate-looking rocks, and towards the sea it is protected by islands of naked granite. Its population is about 21,000 souls. It is the seat of one of the bishopricks of Norway, and has a royal school for music, a school for navigation, a college, a public library, and a museum. The refining of sugar, the manufacture of earthenware, the building of ships for sale, together with

its fisheries, constitute the chief branches of the industry of the inhabitants of this ancient city.

TRONDHEIM, (or *Trondtjen*, as the Norwegians write it,) is also on the western coast, between latitudes 63 and 64. Its position is romantic, standing on the gulf or fiord of the same name, and surrounded with picturesque scenery. It is built almost wholly of wood. It was the residence of the kings of Norway in ancient times, and at present it is the seat of a bishoprick. Its population does not reach 13,000 souls. The cathedral, dedicated to St. Olaf, is a sort of restoration of the ancient and magnificent one which was partially destroyed by fire, in 1719, and which had been the object of pilgrimage for ages, to the north of Europe. It is the chief object of interest in this city to strangers. This city possesses a College, a Royal Academy of Science, a Cabinet of Natural History, a Library, considerably rich, and a Seminary for the instruction of the Laplanders. It is the entrepôt for the copper extracted from the rich mines of Røraas.

KONGSBERG is remarkable for its mint, and its mines of silver. For a long time these mines had been abandoned, on account of the difficulty of working them. Of late years, the working of them has been renewed; and the product has already greatly surpassed the expense. From 1830 until 1832, inclusive, the clear gain was nearly \$184,000. The population of Kongsberg is about 4,000. This city lies about 50 miles to the southwest of Christiania.

FREDERIKSTAD is important for its fortifications, its port, and its commerce. It is the only city in Norway that is built of stone. The population is about 2,000 souls.

DRAMMEN stands at the head of one of the branches of the fiord of Christiania. It is distinguished for its trade in timber, a greater quantity being floated down the rivers which flow into the fiord on which it stands, than

is brought to any other city in Norway. It has a population of some 2,000 or 3,000 souls.

CHRISTIANSAND, in the southern extremity of Norway, is an important port, well fortified, and one of the chief stations of the Norwegian navy. It is the seat of a bishoprick, and has a college, a public library, a museum, and a population of 5,000 souls.

STAVANGER, in the southwest, has a beautiful harbor, and a population of nearly 4,000 souls. The cathedral of this city is regarded as the most beautiful Gothic monument in Norway.

CHRISTIANSUND is a prosperous city, has much commerce, and is especially engaged in the fisheries. It has an Agricultural Society, which has greatly benefited the surrounding country, in stimulating the inhabitants to drain their overflowed lands.

ALSTABORG is a miserable place, but remarkable as being the most northern seat of a bishoprick (being in lat. $67^{\circ} 38'$) in Europe.

TROMSÖE, upon a small island, is the chief place of Finmark; its population is upwards of 700 souls. A newspaper is published here, which is, without doubt, the most northern production of the kind in the world.

HAMMERFEST is the most commercial city of the old continent, at the same elevated latitude ($70^{\circ} 36'$); the population is about 100 souls.

WARDÖEHUUS, a small fortress, with a harbor, and 100 inhabitants, is the most northern fortification of the globe, being in lat $70^{\circ} 22'$. By a decree of the government, in 1816, every soldier who will serve voluntarily four years at that fortress, shall be exempt, during the remainder of his life, from all claims of the state!

Norway is beginning to be much visited during the summer months, by English and Germans, as well as by a few persons from America, on account of its beautiful and

even sublime scenery. The route from Christiania to Bergen, direct, or that by way of the coast, furnishes, we have been informed, much that is in the highest degree interesting. So does that from Christiania down through Drammen and Kongsberg, to Laurvig and Frederiksværn; whilst that from Christiania, through Frederikstad, Frederikstein, and Frederikshald, to the Trollhätta Falls and Gottenburg, conducts the traveler not only through scenes interesting from their historical associations, but by the most remarkable cataract in Europe. But no route in Norway is so interesting, perhaps, all things considered, as that from Christiania to Trondheim, along the narrow and extended lake Mjösen, or expansion of the Wormen river, (or Glommen, as it is called on some maps,) and over the Dovre Fjeld, or high table land, on which the streams which flow southeast, and those which flow to the northwest, take their rise in the vicinity of each other. To those who have leisure to employ several days in making this journey, of more than 350 miles, and who can bear the fatigues of traveling in the little wagons, or carriages, (for of stages or diligences, we would inform the reader, there is not one in all Norway, as far as our knowledge goes,) this is a most agreeable excursion. It will add not a little to the enjoyment, to have some knowledge of the Danish language, in order to learn the traditions of the country—for it abounds in all sorts of legends—as well as to be able to make the journey with more facility. Not only is the wild and romantic scenery of the route—its mountains, its cool and refreshing lakes, and its extended fields—but also the singular costumes of the peasants, the novel structure of their houses, and their primitive simplicity, honesty, and hospitality, well calculated to interest and instruct a curious and reflecting mind.

It had been our wish, and intention even, to make that tour during our present visit, and cross over from Trond-

heim to Stockholm, by the route from the former to Sundsval, and thence down to the latter. But want of health, as well as want of time to make it satisfactorily, compelled us to retrace our steps to Gottenburg, and enter Sweden by way of that city. Accordingly, after having taken leave of a number of excellent and intelligent friends,* whom our stay of several days had made us acquainted with, we embarked on board the *Constitutionen*,† and bade adieu to Christiania and its very pleasant scenes, amid which we fain would have lingered longer, had duty permitted.

Our voyage down the bay of Christiania was, in some respects, more pleasant than the one which we made when ascending to Christiania, and, in some respects, it was less so. We had not so great a crowd of passengers, but we had less pleasant weather. It was rather too cool, and, consequently, somewhat uncomfortable. We know not

* One of these friends is the excellent Moravian minister whom we have mentioned elsewhere. Another was a most agreeable merchant, who had been our fellow-voyager from Copenhagen to Christiania; another was a most talented editor of one of the best and most widely circulated journals of that city. But among all those whose acquaintance it was our privilege to make, there was one family which lives in the neighborhood of the capital of Norway which we shall never forget. A portion of its members are of the Society of Friends, and all are decided Christians. The mother is a sister of that excellent peasant-reformer whom we have mentioned elsewhere—Hans Hougø. There was in it an air of chastened cheerfulness, and a sweet spirit of benevolence and devotion, which must be felt in order to be comprehended, and which may be felt but not described.

† We give the name of this steamboat just as we found it in the bills. Strictly speaking the name was only *Constitution*, the termination *en* being no part of the name, but only the article, (the,) which, in Danish and Swedish, is put at the end of a word when there is no adjective to intervene. Lake Mälaren is often written Mälarn, or Mälaren; Wetter is often written Wetteren.

what was the precise difference in the temperature of the two days—that on which we went up to Christiania, and that on which we came down from it—when measured by a thermometer; but we are confident that it must have been some 15 or 20 degrees.

The Norwegians of the cities and towns are great smokers, nearly equal to the Germans and Dutch—to surpass them we hold to be as nigh to an impossibility as almost anything of which we have any knowledge. Of all the men who were on the steam-boat when going up to Christiania, or returning from that place, there were few who had not their goodly pipes, with enormous bulbs, and elastic tubes, almost constantly at hand. Our young red-haired captain smoked absolutely without cessation, whilst he walked his rounds on the elevated platform between the wheel-houses, and by a motion of his hand directed the pilot at the stern, or by a word indicated his will to the attentive and active sailors, who were always about the bows of the boat awaiting his orders. In addition to the noble pipe, which was usually of from eighteen inches to two feet in longitude, the real connoisseur in smoking always carries with him, in Norway, a pouch or bag, much in the shape of a lady's small reticule, in which the strongly-scented plant is stowed away. The truly fashionable dandy-smoker takes care to have the sides of his tobacco-bag garnished with the inwrought picture of a flower or a handsome lady, and nicely appends it by a pretty silken cord to a button, or a button-hole in his coat. Thus accoutred, and with steel and plenty of tinder in his pocket, he is as well prepared for the pleasures of smoking, as is the huntsman, who goes forth with his shot-pouch suspended from his neck, and his gun on his shoulder, for those of the chase.

Why it should be so we cannot say, but so it really seemed, that we, who abhor and abjure tobacco in all

its shapes, and utterly abominate the detestable weed, could find no escape from its smoke and perfume during the whole voyage. Go where we might, it would keep curling and waving towards us. Sometimes we tried one part of the boat, and sometimes another. But windward and leeward seemed to make not the slightest difference. Our enemy pursued us everywhere. Once we got a seat on one end of a box, and congratulating ourselves on finding a little respite, and a little of the pure air of heaven, began to read. But what was our dismay on finding ourselves, in a few moments, completely obfuscated! for a Norwegian with his pipe had perched himself by our side, on the other end of the box, and had commenced puffing out his huge volumes of smoke with the most perfect sangfroid imaginable.

At length we arrived at Frederiksværn; and knowing, from the appearance of the bay and the strength of the wind, what we might expect, notwithstanding the clear state of the atmosphere, and besides being moved thereto by certain infallible inward symptoms, of which we will not speak particularly: we thought it best, as soon as we had left the Constitutionen and reached the Prinds Carl, to go quietly down into the cabin, and place ourselves in the berth, which the clerk had assigned to us. It was our firm resolution to pass the night as stilly as possible.

We have always considered ourselves as remarkably pacific, and wholly destitute of the least degree of the pugnacious. If we ever had the bump of that vice (which we much question), philosophy, or better religion, or much commerce with the world has worn it off; for certain it is that it exists not now. We have long found that it is not wise to quarrel with anybody in traveling. Ever since, in the days of impatient youth, we once had a sharp dispute with a stage proprietor and a driver, we have concluded that "discretion is the better part of

valor ;" and the result to which our experience has conducted us is the firm conviction, that there are few men so perverse that they cannot be induced to do what is just by mild persuasion or courteous remonstrance. But we had our patience sorely tried, not once, but twice during this night. For as there was a great number of passengers, and many could not obtain berths, a gentleman had the boldness to arouse us out of sleep, and with basin in hand, as if prepared for all the exigencies of sea-sickness, proposed to share (don't be alarmed, good reader, we are quite *singular*, though we speak in the plural,) to share our berth with us. This was too much, both in the proposition and in the circumstance. We remonstrated in good earnest, and were almost prepared to recalcitrate also. This was enough, the attempt was given up. But "one evil followeth hard on the heels of another," as the old proverb says, and so we found. For we had no sooner, by dint of obstinate resolution, overcome the strong tendency which we felt, by no dubious symptoms, to the *mal de mer*, than a second attempt was made to get possession of our goodly berth. But all in vain ; for we were determined not to yield, as we did on another occasion, and found, upon awaking in the morning, a sandy-haired Norwegian snoring away at our side. The inconvenience of the matter was too great.

We ought to say, however, in justice to these people, that what leads sometimes to such a proposition as that which was made to us, is the fact that in some of the steam-boats in this region, the upper berths are made very wide, and are really double berths, are so numbered, and are so occupied. But this was not the case in reference to the one which the captain had kindly assigned to us.

The next morning dawned upon us in all the beauty of the opening of a clear and balmy summer's day. Not a

cloud was to be seen. The winds had ceased to blow, the weary waves were returning to a state of brief repose; and our goodly stoombot—as the Danes called it—was approaching Gottenburg, where we arrived about 10 o'clock, A. M.

This city stands on the left bank of the Götha Elf, or river, within some three or four miles of its mouth. But as the entrance to it is through the wide belt of islands which encircles all the coast of Sweden and Norway, the distance from the clear sea of the Cattegat to Gottenburg cannot be less than ten or twelve miles. The conduct of a ship between these islands requires a good pilot, for the dangers from rocks are thick on either hand. The harbor, as might be supposed, is a very safe one. It is in fact one of the best in Sweden.

Gottenburg is a most remarkably situated city. The islands and the coast, as far as the eye can reach, appear to be nothing but pure masses of granite of a dark grey surface. Not a tree, and scarcely a shrub is seen on them. The river, at the point where the city stands, makes a bend almost in the shape of an elbow, or obtuse angle. The lower part of the city, called *Klippen*, stands along one side of this angle, and on the sides of an immense bank of rocks, and along its base. Its appearance is very singular. The red roofs of the houses form quite a contrast with the dark ground of rock, against which they seem, as seen from afar, to lie. The part of the city, which appropriates to itself the name of Gottenburg, lies along the upper side of the angle, and almost faces the lower part. The two parts of the city are separated at the point of the angle by an open space of ground, which has not yet been covered by the city, and which is now divided into lots of pasture or garden grounds. Just on the verge of this flat, marshy space, and between it and the upper town, rises an immense mass of rocks, or rather

two masses—for a street or road, leading to the lower town, passes between them—which is higher than the tops of the highest houses of the city. A little higher up the river, and immediately on the bank, rises another mass of naked rock, in the shape of an isolated hill. Between these two mountain masses of granite, a great canal runs out from the river, and at right angles with it, into an extensive level, meadow-like piece of ground, on which the old city—or city proper rather—of Gottenburg stands. This canal is intersected, at right angles, by two or three other canals, which extend throughout the city. Beyond the city, and between it and the crescent of rocky hills which surrounds the city, on the east and south, lies a considerable extent of level meadow or garden lands, on the borders of which, and at the foot of these hills, are situated, at different points, some three or four villages.

Gottenburg is the second city in Sweden in regard to commerce. Its population, including Klippen and the villages just mentioned, is not much short of 30,000 souls. It is the great centre of the timber and iron trade of the southwestern part of Sweden. It has much trade with England, and considerable with the United States. It was here that, on a former occasion, we first saw after a long period, the stars and stripes of our country's banner, with emotions which they only who have long been absent from their country can appreciate. It recalled to our minds all the sweet associations which cluster around the very name of our beloved country, and made us long to be once more on its shores.

Timber is shipped from this port to France and Holland, to England, to Spain, to various ports on the Mediterranean, and, in the shape of deals, even to Brazil. The steam-boat which runs between Copenhagen and Christiania stops at Gottenburg on its passage either way; and there is a steamer plying between Hull in England and this city.

The streets of Gottenburg are wide, paved with stones, of what might be called a roundish shape, and of unequal sizes. Few of them have any side-ways, and the gutters or drains run along close to the houses. Of course, they are not very pleasant for promenading. We noticed a little variety in them. Some of them have in the middle a continuous straight row of larger and flatter stones,* upon which it is easier to walk than elsewhere. This gives to these streets, sometimes, an appearance very different from those in Copenhagen. For whilst in the Danish capital, you will see the pedestrians marching along the streets in two rows, one on each side of the street, on the granite blocks which bound the side-walks, you may see at Gottenburg a single row, pursuing the middle path. As to the convenience of the matter, neither city has much to boast of. But Gottenburg is much the cleaner of the two. And it is well supplied with pure water.

The houses of Gottenburg are built of brick, and stuccoed. They have generally a dark whitish color. Some of the streets present continuous squares of handsome houses; and, in general, it may be said to be a well built city. The two principal churches and the Exchange are the only public buildings of any note. Nature presents here more than art, to interest a stranger. For our part, we could not cease to admire, during our stay, the diversified forms of the stupendous masses of granite in and about it. Often did we ascend the high rock which lies in the city, on the river's side, to enjoy the fine view, which it gives on every side. Below lay the city, further towards the east and south were masses of rocks in the shape of hills, with patches of verdure lying

* This central line of stones serves for a mark to indicate to those who occupy the houses on the two sides of the street, how much each is required to keep in repair. The centre-line itself is to be kept in order by the city authority.

in the ravines between them. On the southwest lay the islands in the Cattegat, separated from each other by belts and friths of the sea. Whilst on the west and north lay great masses of naked granite, with here and there, in the valleys between them, the brown roof of a dwelling house surrounded by a few trees, with some acres of green meadow, or of grain ripening for the sickle.

The city of Gottenburg—at least the upper town—was formerly fortified in a strong manner, by a rampart and a moat. At present these fortifications no longer exist, save the part of the rampart which could not be removed, we mean the mass of rocks, with a small addition which art had made in one place. At a short distance from the city to the northeast, there stands on a hill what was once used as a sort of citadel, and made a part of the works for the defence of the city, but which is now used as a powder-magazine. It would indeed seem to be a superfluous work to erect fortifications for the defence of a city which nature has fortified in such a manner, that all that is necessary, is to mount a few pieces of cannon on the rocky natural fortress, in the heart of the city, and man them well. It would appear as if the government was of the same opinion, for there are here between nine hundred and a thousand artillery troops, whom we had an opportunity of seeing manœuvred with some eight or ten pieces of field ordnance. The occasion was a review given on a common or plain adjoining the city, in honor of *Baron Von Borstel*, of the Prussian cavalry, who was returning from Stockholm, whither he had been sent to return the visit of congratulation which the Swedish government had made by an ambassador to the present king of Prussia, upon his accession to the throne. General Borstel is considered a man of great merit; he distinguished himself in the battle of Leipsic.

Gottenburg has a good public library, and various societies, such as a Royal Academy of Sciences, an Agricultural Society, a Society for the promotion of Music, and a School for Navigation. It has an admirable bathing establishment, where cold, warm, fresh, and salt water baths may be had at every hour of the day or evening, at a very moderate price.

The environs of Gottenburg are as beautiful and agreeable as they are picturesque. A very pleasant promenade and drive, like a boulevard, has been, within a few years, laid out in the suburbs, and almost makes the circuit of the upper city. It consists of a wide carriage way, with walks on each side, and is lined with rows of linden trees. This improvement and many others owe their existence to the enlightened exertions of Mr. Olaf Wyk and a few other gentlemen. Beyond the suburbs, the several roads which lead into the country, conduct the stranger, who desires to see what is beautiful, through many neighborhoods, which are really charming, consisting of hills of rock, and fertile valleys interspersed. This is particularly the case with the road that leads to the south in the direction of Helsingborg and Copenhagen.

Gottenburg figures a little in the history of our own country. It was here that during our last war with Great Britain, the Emperor Alexander of Russia, whose efforts to bring that war to a speedy close were of the most praiseworthy character, proposed that the plenipotentiaries of the two nations should meet, to endeavor to agree upon terms of peace. Various causes prevented the meeting from occurring here. Ghent was afterwards named by the Emperor, and there the treaty was made. But our distinguished countryman, the Hon. Henry Clay, came on to this city, and remained here some two or three months. His visit is well remembered, and is often spoken of in the highest

terms to Americans, by gentlemen who made his acquaintance on that occasion.

AND as it is our purpose to spend a few days in this city, we will here, standing as it were on the threshold of Sweden, give, according to our plan, a brief sketch of its history. This we shall do in our next chapter.

CHAPTER VIII.

HISTORY OF SWEDEN.

No reliance to be placed on the accounts which the Sagas and other historians give us of Sweden before the arrival of Odin—Dynasty of Odin—Ynglings, their character, and their expulsion—Ivar Vidfadme conquers Sweden—Introduction of Christianity—Extinction of the Dynasty of Stenkil—Rival factions of the Goths and Svlar or Swedes—Treaty of ultimate succession—Progress of Christianity—Character of several of the kings of that period—The Folkungar usurp the throne—New dynasty in Sweden—Regency of Birger Jarl—Magnus Ladulås—Turbulent reign of Birge—Accession of Magnus Smek—His wars to recover the throne—His abdication and exile—Albert—Union of Calmar—Erik, a bad king—Insurrection of the Dalecarlians—Erik deposed in Sweden—Charles Knutson chosen administrator—Restoration of Erik—His faithless conduct and final expulsion—King Christopher—not a good king—Christian I.—His wars with the Swedes—King John—The wicked reign of Christian II.—Cruelties of Christian II.—Massacre at Stockholm—Gustavus Wasa—The Washington of Sweden—Termination of the union of Calmar—Death of Gustavus Wasa—Fickle and worthless character and conduct of Erik—Persecution of the Sture family—Attempts to restore the Roman Catholic religion in Sweden—Abdication of Sigismund—Accession of Charles IX.—Military exploits of Gustavus Adolphus—Auspicious commencement of his reign—War with Poland—Thirty years' war—Battle of Leipsic—Battle of Lutzen—Death of Gustavus Adolphus—Abdication of Christina—Her character—Charles X.—Death of Charles X.—Changes in the Constitution and Government of Sweden—Accession of Charles XII.—His wars—His character and end—Internal dissensions in Sweden—Loss of Finland—Struggle between the Hats and Caps—Revolution effected by Gustavus III.—Assassination of Gustavus III.—His brother becomes Regent—Execution of Ankarström—Gustavus IV.—His character—His dethronement—Duke of Södermania made king—Death of the prince of Augustenburg, heir to the throne of Sweden—Bernadotte elected Crown Prince—His conduct towards Buonaparte—His judicious policy since he has been king of Sweden. Royal Family.

1. HISTORY OF SWEDEN UNTIL THE MIDDLE OF THE 11TH CENTURY OF THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

THIS may be called the Heroic Age of Swedish history. Vast labor has been bestowed by the Scandinavian historians

to elucidate the early ages of Sweden's history as well as that of the other portions of the North. But much mystery hangs over this entire subject, which we fear will never be solved. There is no want of legendary accounts of the original colonization of this country, which, we are told, occurred soon after the deluge. The very names of all the kings who reigned there from Noah down to modern times have been found in the sages.

But the most judicious of the Scandinavian historians are agreed in rejecting, as either wholly fabulous or too much adulterated to be depended upon as historical statements, all the accounts of the periods which preceded the arrival of Odin in these parts. It is admitted that that celebrated warrior, who was at once a prophet and a pontiff-king, passed the latter part of his life in Sweden, at Sigtuna on Lake Mælar, not far from Upsala, which was his capital. According to the most thorough inquiry and comparison, it appears that from the days of Odin down until the middle of the 11th century of the Christian era, no less than forty kings or paramount princes reigned at Upsala,* which was long the capital of Sweden. They were all of the sacred stock of Odin, though they were not all descended from that illustrious sire through the same branch or house. The first twenty-four are called Ynglings, from Yngve or Freyer, a son of Niord, who was one of the sons of Odin. The last sixteen are called Skioldungs, and were the descendants of Ivar Vidfadme, who was a son of Halfdan III., a Danish king, and descended from Skiold, another son of Odin. Hence the

* If any man wishes to go into the full extent of this subject let him consult the *Ynglinga Saga*, *Torfæus*, *Suhm*, the *Scriptores Rerum Danicarum Medii Ævi*, and the history of *Geijer*. The last named author contains all that is worthy of a perusal.

reason why the descendants of Ivar Vidfadme were called *Skioldungs*.*

The annals of these pontiff-kings possess little that is interesting. In consequence of their connexion with Odin, many of the earlier ones were exalted to the rank of gods or demi-gods, and received the honors of divine worship. But the lives of several displayed a striking inconsistency, both with their pretensions to a celestial origin, and their apotheosis. Some of them died of drunkenness, and others through the intrigues of their wives or courtiers. Taken as a whole, they seem to have been a singularly worthless race, if one may speak so of anointed kings.

* The following is the list which the most profound of the Swedish archæologists have been able to make of these kings or paramount princes.

ANCIENT KINGS OF SWEDEN—THE YNGLINGS.

Odin arrived in the North, B.C.	70	Braut-Onund	died A. C.	565
Niord	died —	20	Ingiald Ilkrada	623
Freyer-Yngve,	A. C.	10	Olaf Trætelia..exiled about	630
Fjolner		14		
Sevegdir		34	<i>Accession of the Skioldungs.</i>	
Vanland or Valland		48		
Visbur		98	Ivar Vidfadme	died A. C. 647
Domald		130	Harald Hildetand	735
Domar		162	Sigurd Ring	750
Dygge		190	Ragnar Lodbrok	794
Dag-Spaka, the Wise		220	Biorn Ironside	804
Agne		260	Erik Biornson	808
Alrek and Erik		280	Erik Ræfillson	820
Yngve and Alf		300	Emund and Biorn	859
Hugleik		302	Erik Emundson	873
Jorunder and Erik		312	Biorn Erikson	923
Aun hinn Gamle, the Old		448	Erik the Victorious	993
Egill Tunnadolgi		456	Erik Arsell	1001
Ottar Vendilkraka		460	Olaf Skotkonung	1026
Adils		505	Emund Kolbrenner	1051
Eysteinn		531	Emund Slemme	1056
Yngvar		543	Stenkil raised to the throne	1056

The change in the royal line was occasioned by the enormous wickedness of Ingjald Illrada, which led his people to join Ivar Vidfadme, the Dane, when he came to avenge the death of his father, who had been murdered through the influence of Asa, a daughter of Ingjald, probably with the connivance of her father. The issue was the death of the tyrant, the exile of his son, Olaf Trætelia, (Tree-feller,)—who founded a dynasty in Norway, as we have elsewhere stated—and the seizing of the throne of Upsala by Ivar.

It was in the reign of Biorn II., that the first rays of the Gospel are said to have reached to Sweden. Erik Arsaell is reported to have carried his zeal in behalf of Christianity so far, as to cause the magnificent heathen temple at Upsala, with its idols and images, to be destroyed, and the ancient sacrifices to be interdicted, under the severest corporal punishments. But this proceeding and this mandate cost him his life. His son, Olaf Skotkonung,* carried the matter further, and was baptized, with his whole family, in the year 1001. He was ready to go very far in his zeal, but was restrained by the Diet, who were in favor of freedom of conscience. The result of this compromise was a singular admixture of Christianity and paganism among the people, for a long time. Olaf was a better warrior than saint. His son, Emund Jacob, was so zealous in promoting the progress of the Gospel, as to obtain the title of Most Christian Majesty. The incapacity and ill-fortune of his successor, in a war with the Danes, led to his deposition, and the election of Stenkil to the vacant throne; and thus ended the reign of the Skioldungs in Sweden. This occurred in the year 1056.

* The title of Skotkonung, or Tribute-king, was given him on account of a yearly tax which he paid the Pope, to enable him to carry on the war against the infidels.

2. HISTORY OF SWEDEN, FROM THE ACCESSION OF STENKILL TO THE THRONE, TILL THE UNION OF CALMAR, FROM 1056 TILL 1389.

A new dynasty commenced in Sweden with Stenkil, who reigned ten years, and bore the reputation of a wise and powerful prince. From the epoch of his accession to the throne, until the union of Calmar, there reigned twenty-one kings.* At the commencement of this era, Sweden, which afterwards acquired so great a distinction in military affairs, and so vast an extension of territory, was the weakest and the most obscure of the three Scandinavian kingdoms. The extent of the kingdom was not great, and what was worse, the people who inhabited it were not well united. The State needed an enlightened consolidation of its interests, and an amalgamation of its various, and to a great extent, hostile tribes. In these internal disputes, the Sviar and the Goths took the lead; and for a long time interrupted the peace, and weakened the power of the kingdom. Not unfrequently they chose each their king, and contended with bitterness, even unto

* The following is a list of these twenty-one kings, drawn from the best Swedish authorities :

	DIED, A. D.		DIED, A. D.
Stenkil,	1066	Erik III., (the Stammerer,)	1250
Halstan,	1090	Birger Jarl, (Regent,)	1266
Inge I., (the Good,)	1112	Valdemar I.,	1275
Philip,	1118	Magnus I. (Ladulæs,)	1290
Inge II.,	1129	Birger,	1319
Sverker I.,	1155	Magnus II., (Smek,) ex-	
Erik I., (the Saint,)	1161	pelled,	1350
Charles Sverkerson,	1167	Erik IV.,	1359
Knut Erikson,	1199	Magnus restored,	1363
Sverker II.,	1210	Hakon II. (VI. of Nor-	
Erik II. (Knutson,)	1216	way,) deposed,	1363
John Sverkerson,	1222	Albert of Mecklenburg,	1389

blood, for their rival claims. Of the immediate successors of Stenkil, Inge I., Halstan, and Inge II., were worthy men, and yet the first and the last suffered violent deaths from their enemies. After a season of anarchy, Sverker I., who had risen to distinction from the station of a private individual, became king. He was a wise and good ruler; but he also fell a prey to assassination. Erik, who succeeded him, conquered the Finns, and compelled them to embrace Christianity. He compiled an excellent body of laws, called by the Swedes, until this day, "St. Erik's Lag." He was defeated and slain by the Danes, in the plain of Upsala, who were themselves, in turn, overthrown with great slaughter, by Charles Sverkerson, who succeeded Erik on the throne. He was a wise and good prince, but was defeated and beheaded by Knut, son of Erik, who had become his enemy, and conspired against him. He displayed much energy during his reign. He was succeeded by Sverker II., son of Charles, who reigned well at first, but afterwards turned tyrannical and cruel, and was finally deposed and slain in battle, by Erik, son of Knut, who reigned six years, and died lamented by his people. Of John, who succeeded, there is nothing special to say. He was succeeded by Erik III., (the Stammerer, so called, from the effect of paralysis on his organs of speech,) who was an able prince. The clan of the Folkungar revolted against him, but he defeated them. He was considered a fearless warrior, and an able politician. With him ended the joint dynasty of Sverker and St. Erik.

Of the rulers in Sweden who succeeded during this period, the best were Birger Jarl, who acted as regent for his son, Valdemar, (whom the Diet had chosen king,) and Magnus I.; the worst were king Birger,* Magnus II.,

* King Birger did well so long as Torkel Knutson was regent. This great man procured the enactment of many good laws, one of which forbade slavery, on the ground that "it was unjust for Chris-

(Smek,) and Albert. Upon the deposition of Albert, Olaf became king of Sweden, as he had of Norway and Denmark; or rather, being a minor, his mother, queen Margaret, ruled all three kingdoms for him.

3. HISTORY OF SWEDEN, FROM THE UNION OF CALMAR UNTIL THE REFORMATION.

By the union of Calmar, as it is called, because it was effected in that city in the year 1397, by commissioners appointed for that purpose by the three kingdoms, Sweden came under the same sceptre that ruled Denmark and Norway. This union of the three kingdoms, from 1397 until 1523—a period of 126 years—was never popular in Sweden. That country was governed by administrators, or governors, appointed by the sovereigns of the United Kingdom. During that time * most of these viceroys were only vice-regal tyrants, and the people resisted them in many cases, and in some instances succeeded in driving them away from their midst.

Erik of Pomerania, who succeeded Queen Margaret as ruler of the united kingdom, gave great offence to the Swedes by placing over them a tyrannical governor of the name of Josse Erikson. The brave Dalecarlians resisted his unjust rule, under the conduct of their patriot-leader, Engelbrekt Engelbrektson, who deserves to be called the Scandinavian Tell. Erik was worsted in the conflict, and

tians to sell each other, when Christ had made all free!" A noble sentiment!

* The following is a list of the most distinguished of these Administrators who bore rule for longer or shorter periods in Sweden, and who were chosen by the Swedes themselves.

	A. D.		A. D.
Charles Knutson usurps the throne		Svante Sture died	1512
	1448	Sten Sture the Younger	1520
— finally expelled	1470	Gustavus Wasa made king	
Sten Sture the Elder died	1503	in 1523, and died	1560

resorted to dissimulation. He promised to do better. But as soon as the Swedes laid down their arms, he resumed his capricious and tyrannical course. Upon this the Swedes revolted again, and appointed Engelbrektson their general-in-chief. The flame of revolt spread everywhere. The nobles assembled and chose one of their number, Charles Knutson, permanent administrator of the kingdom, in opposition to the popular candidate, Engelbrektson. This man soon disappointed the hopes of the nation, and took steps to make himself king. In the meanwhile Erik began to be so unpopular in all portions of his kingdom, that the Danes proposed to depose him and elect Christopher of Bavaria in his place, and invited the Swedes to join them. But they had a tyrant of their own, in the person of Charles Knutson, to depose. This man, who had a good reputation at the outset, had begun to take steps for placing himself on the throne, and for that purpose he had caused a number of his rivals to be put out of the way.

Christopher became very unpopular in Sweden before his death. Upon the occurrence of that event, Charles Knutson, by various artifices, succeeded in causing himself to be elected king, in opposition to Christian I., Count of Oldenburg, who was made king by the Danes. Eventually he was chosen king of Sweden also, and his rival was compelled to abdicate and quit the kingdom. But the reign of Christian becoming tyrannical, Knutson was recalled from his exile, and once more put at the head of the nation. Christian's arms triumphing, he was compelled once more to retire from his unenviable post. He betook himself to a monastery in Finland, whence he was again called by his countrymen to place himself at their head, in opposition to the king. But his remaining days were spent in bloody contentions with his rivals of the Wasa and Oxenstierna families. On his death-bed he nominated Sten Sture, one of the most distinguished of the

native chieftains for talents and valor, to the administration of the kingdom. The diet confirmed the nomination.

Christian I. soon marched against the new administration; but he was totally defeated, and at once and for ever abandoned the hope of recovering the Swedish throne by force of arms. Upon his death his son John ascended the throne of Denmark and Norway. But the Swedes would not submit to him. A long contest ensued. The Swedes, first, under Sten Sture, and after his death, in 1503, under Svante Sture, resisted the claims and the arms of the king. Upon the death of Svante Sture, in 1512, his son, Sten Sture II., was chosen administrator. The year after John died, and was succeeded by his son, Christian II. This man was one of the greatest tyrants that ever lived. By stratagem he induced several of the Swedish nobles, and among them Gustavus Erikson, (afterwards so well known under the name of Gustavus Wasa,) to go on board of his fleet off Stockholm. When he had gotten them into his power, he sailed away with them to Copenhagen, and threw them into prison. He then set about subduing Sweden, and succeeded for a while but too well. He invaded that kingdom with a great army. Sten Sture was mortally wounded in a battle, and his forces completely routed. The tyrant reached Stockholm itself, and there concluded a peace with the diet, and was crowned king. During a great festival, which lasted three days, he seized many of the most distinguished men of the kingdom, and threw them into prison. The next day they were tried by a commission, composed of the tools of the tyrant, at the head of whom was the infamous Gustavus Trolle, the primate of the kingdom. Forthwith ninety-four ecclesiastics, senators, knights and burgomasters, were condemned to death and executed. Among the senators put to death on that occasion was Erik, the father of Gustavus Wasa.

But the day of retribution came. The young Gustavus Wasa escapes from Denmark, returns to his country, wan-

ders from province to province, and conceals himself for months among the brave Dalecarlians. There he at length succeeds in arousing a portion of his countrymen. He takes the field. God gives success to his arms. Christian II. is defeated everywhere. The Danes are driven out of Sweden, and the independence of that country is secured. Its deliverer is chosen king, and, in 1523, he ascended the throne. Thus ended the union of Calmar, so far as Sweden was concerned. The remainder of Christian's history is told elsewhere.

The accession of Gustavus Wasa to the throne of Sweden is coincident with the commencement of the Reformation in that country. And within a few years after the event to which we have just referred, that great moral and religious revolution was perfected in Sweden, through the efforts of several good men—among whom two brothers, Olaus and Laurentius Petri, were prominent—under the encouraging and even propelling auspices of the king.

4. HISTORY OF SWEDEN FROM THE REFORMATION UNTIL THE PRESENT TIME.

Since the accession of Gustavus Wasa to the throne of Sweden, in 1523, until the present time, a period of 318 years has elapsed. And during that period seventeen monarchs have been on the throne of that country, including Gustavus Wasa and the present king.* The number

* The following is a list of the seventeen monarchs who have been on the throne of Sweden since the Reformation may be said to have entered that country :

Gustavus Wasa died	A. D. 1560	Charles XII.	A. D. 1718
Erik XIV. deposed	1568	Ulrica Eleanora	} 1751
John	1592	Frederick of Hesse	
Sigismund, deposed	1600	Adolphus Frederick	1771
Charles IX.	1611	Gustavus III. assassinated	1792
Gustavus Adolphus	1632	Gustavus IV. deposed	1809
Christina abdicated	1654	Charles XIII.	1818
Charles X.	1660	Charles John (Bernadotte)	1841
Charles XI.	1697	reigning in	

of reigns, however, has been but sixteen, for Ulrica Eleonora and Frederick of Hesse were but one, inasmuch as they reigned jointly.

Gustavus Wasa was a man of great decision and firmness of character. His disposition was serious, or rather stern, and his manners were not such as might be called popular. But his patriotism was founded in pure principle, and was at all times unwavering and undoubted. He was the George Washington of Sweden. During his reign he consolidated the kingdom, uniting the Gothic and Swedish or Sviar races more thoroughly than they ever had been. He made the Lutheran Church the established church of the land. Much of his attention was bestowed upon its organization, the supplying of it with a liturgy, and the nation with a proper translation of the Scriptures. In this good work he was aided by the excellent brothers, Laurentius and Olaus Petri. He succeeded in defeating all the intrigues of Frederick I. and Christian III. of Denmark, to recover the Swedish crown. He put down all the attempts which were made to overthrow the government by internal commotions and rebellions, of which there were several, one of the worst of which was made by Thure Johanson, a discontented chief, in 1529. In his latter years, he enjoyed peace and tranquillity, and turned much of his attention to the promotion of the useful arts and sciences. He was, in a word, a wise, able and useful sovereign, and such as neither Sweden nor any other country has often possessed.

Gustavus Wasa was succeeded by his eldest son, Erik; than whom a more incapable prince has seldom been called, even by birth, to sit on a throne. In the first place, he made himself the laughing-stock of Europe in his matrimonial affairs, for he sought the hand of Elizabeth, Queen of England, Mary, Queen of Scotland, the Princess

of Lorraine, who was a daughter of Christian II., and we know not how many others, and at last married his mistress, the daughter of a humble subject. Next, he quarreled with his brother John, whom he accused of treason, seized and imprisoned him for a long time, and put to death all whom he suspected of being implicated, among whom was Nils, or Nikolas, the last remaining representative of the illustrious family of Sten Sture, whom he assassinated with his own hand, employing for that purpose the very poniard which the unfortunate prince had presented to him as a pledge of his loyalty. The remorse which this act occasioned deprived him at times of his reason, and drove him like a beast into the forests. And lastly ; he plunged his country into a most disastrous war with the Russians and Danes, the latter of whom, under the conduct of their great general, Rantzau, overran much of Sweden, whilst their fleets blockaded even Stockholm itself.

At length the enraged citizens rose up and deposed him, and placed his brother John on the throne. The miserable Erik was kept first in a prison in the ~~city~~, then in Abo in Finland, afterwards in several other ~~places~~. But he ended his days in Orebro, we believe, and was buried in Westeraas, where his tomb is to be seen, in the Cathedral of that city. His death occurred in 1577, by poison which his brother caused him to take or be assassinated. His life, whilst he was in prison, was very wretched. He often was in want of the most common comforts. During his captivity, he kept a journal of what occurred to him, and when deprived of the society of his wife and of the use of books, he devoted himself to music, in which he excelled both as a composer and a performer. He translated the history of Joannes Magnus into Swedish, wrote a treatise on war, and composed penitential hymns, two of which are inserted in the Swedish Psalm-book.

His son, Gustavus, narrowly escaped death more than once, and lived for years, a wandering and very wretched life, earning a scanty subsistence by the meanest occupations.

John reigned from 1568 until 1592. One of his first attempts, after punishing the authors of the murders committed during the last reign, was to terminate the disastrous war with Denmark, which had raged seven years. This he did two years afterwards. He next carried on a war with Russia, which was suspended by an ill-observed truce during twelve years, and then renewed with fierceness. He was involved, during three years, in great difficulties with his own subjects on account of his attempts to substitute, at the instigation of the queen, the Roman Catholic religion for the Protestant. These attempts were defeated by the firm but prudent opposition of his brother Charles, and still more by the death of the queen.

Upon his death, the crown devolved, by right, on his son Sigismund, who had been elected king of Poland. This prince, upon his arrival in Sweden, set about restoring the Roman Catholic religion; a proceeding which led to great dissatisfaction. Finally, upon his return to Poland, the Swedes rebelled, and chose his uncle Charles, a third son of the illustrious Wasa, as their leader. A civil war ensued, which issued in the dethronement of Sigismund, so far as Sweden was concerned, and the substitution of Charles in his place.

The greater part of the reign of Charles IX. was taken up with a war with Denmark, which was unfortunate, and would have been ruinous had it not been for the energy displayed by his son, afterwards known as the illustrious Gustavus Adolphus. Charles died in the year 1612, leaving the unfinished war as an inheritance to his son.

This prince, who has been justly styled the most perfect

character of all modern kings, was but eighteen years of age when his father died. But the Diet had so much confidence in him, that it did not hesitate to invest him with supreme authority. In one year he brought the war with Denmark to a close. He reigned just twenty years, and rendered his life illustrious in every way. It was his good fortune to have the counsel and aid of one of the best statesmen that the world has ever known, the great Oxenstierna. The limits of this work will not allow us to go into minute detail of the acts of this monarch, who justly ranks among the very best that Sweden has ever had. He carried on a successful war against Russia and Poland, he promoted the arts and commerce of his own country, and was every way happy amongst his people, when an event occurred which called him to a more extended field. What is called the "Thirty Years' War," and the "Religious War," was occasioned by the Protestants in Germany becoming oppressed by the Emperor, urged on by the Roman Catholics, in violation of the principles adopted at the treaty of Passau in 1552. The consequence was a war of the most formidable and disastrous character. For a time, Christian IV. of Denmark undertook to lead the Protestant armies. But he was defeated, and driven back into his own dominions by the imperial generals, Tilly and Wallenstein. In this extremity, Gustavus Adolphus was invited to put himself at the head of his fellow-Protestants, which he did not hesitate to do.

On the 20th of May, 1630, Gustavus appeared in the Diet, delivered a farewell address of the most affecting character, and presented to it his infant daughter, Christina, as the future sovereign of the country, in case he should never return. Then hastening his preparations, he set out soon after with his forces for Germany, where with an army generally far inferior to those of his enemies, he performed a series of the most brilliant exploits, and

achieved the most astonishing victories, until he fell on the plains of Lützen, on the 2d of November, 1632. The war which he so nobly conducted for two years, was carried on for a long time with vigor, and success too, through the wise counsels of Oxenstierna. It was ended by the treaty of Munster, or Peace of Westphalia (as it is more commonly called), which was concluded on the 24th of October, 1648.

No prince of modern times is more justly extolled than Gustavus Adolphus, not only on account of his personal character, but his great military talents. Many of the most important improvements, as they are called, in the art of war—in other words, of destroying men—owe their invention to him, such as the arranging of companies in ranks of three men deep instead of nine, which was the old way; the substitution of light muskets, with flint locks, instead of the old heavy match-locks; and attaching the bayonet to the side of the musket-barrel, instead of inserting it, when needed, into the muzzle. What gives a more enduring lustre to his name, was his goodness of character, his humanity, his good temper, his high morality, and his habitual sense of dependence on God.

Gustavus Adolphus was succeeded by his daughter Christina, who attained an unenviable celebrity. Yielding to her whims and caprices, she forewent the true glory which she might have attained, for that which was beyond her reach; and after a reign (including her minority) of twenty-two years, she abandoned the throne at the age of twenty-nine years, and spent the rest of her life in other countries, and chiefly at Rome. She abjured the Protestant religion for the Roman Catholic faith, shortly after she left Sweden. Her life, during her last years, was spent in a most voluptuous and shamefully licentious manner. Her cousin, Charles X., succeeded her. He was engaged, during much of his short reign of six years, in a successful

war with the Poles, and afterwards in a disastrous one with the Danes. He expired in 1660, in the arms of Oxenstierna, at the early age of thirty-six.

He was succeeded by his son Charles XI., who was a child of only five years of age. This monarch reigned thirty-seven years, and was one of the ablest sovereigns Sweden ever had. A part of his reign was occupied in war with Denmark, as a matter of course. During his reign (in the year 1693) a revolution occurred in Sweden similar to that of Denmark in 1660, and for the same cause. The peasants and burgesses united with the sovereign in putting down the grasping and insupportable power of the nobles.

Charles XI. was succeeded by his son, known to all the world under the title of Charles XII., who was not fifteen years of age when his father died. In less than six months, this youthful prince took the government very much out of the hands of the regency which had been appointed, and giving up the follies of his boyhood, he applied himself in earnest to great affairs. At the age of eighteen, he carried his victorious arms to the very gates of Copenhagen, and by a campaign of six weeks reduced the Danes to the necessity of suing for peace. Next he turned his attention to the Russians, and gave them an awful defeat at Narva. After that he defeated the Poles and overran their country, and subdued Saxony. But in a mad campaign which he made against the Czar of Russia, in which he advanced far into the southwestern part of that country, he was defeated at Pultowa, and compelled to take refuge in Turkey. There he lived for years at Bender, foolishly wasting his time, at one while on good terms with the Turks, and at another time defying them. At length he was compelled to return to his country, where he at once commenced a war with Denmark, invaded Norway, and was killed by a ball at the

siege of the petty fortress of Frederikshald (December 11, 1718.) As he was reconnoitring the works of the enemy, he was struck by a shot of half a pound ~~in the forehead~~ ^{in the temple} of his temples. His death was instantaneous. He justly merited the epithet of "madman." Possessing an iron frame and the size of a giant,* he inured himself to such fatigue that he could endure almost any thing. In some of his battles he killed not a few men with his own hand. To fight was a real pleasure to him; of this there cannot be the least doubt. He was a rough and uncouth mortal in his appearance, and had not the least *penchant* for the society of ladies, nor that of any other kind in which refinement constitutes an element. And all things considered, we think that of all men who have ever lived, he was one who might be considered as among the best fitted by nature, or rather by his own training, (for we will not slander nature, or rather nature's God,) to be an executioner of the human race.

Charles XII. was succeeded by his youngest sister, Ulrica Eleanora, who two years afterwards insisted upon having her husband, Frederick of Hesse, associated with her in the government. She died in 1742 greatly beloved, and he died in 1751. During their reign Sweden had some repose, but not sufficient to recruit her wasted energies. A war, which was highly injurious, was carried on with Russia, and the interval of peace to the nation was disturbed by the disputes between the Hat and Cap parties, as well as by an insurrection of the Dalecarlians. A battle was fought in the streets of Stockholm, in which 3,000 of the rebels were slain.

* In the Cathedral Church of Roeskilde we saw his height marked on a pillar, where he had stood and was measured, as was Peter the Great afterwards. And though Peter was no pigmy, he was several inches shorter than his rival. A sword of Charles XII. we saw in the Royal Palace at Stockholm, and it was no easy matter for us to wield it.

Adolphus Frederick, a Holstein prince, who was also Bishop of Lübeck, succeeded to the throne of Sweden. He reigned twenty years; his reign was much disturbed by internal factions, and by the intrigues of France. But the moderation of the king enabled him to get through the difficulties which surrounded his position, with credit to himself. He died in the possession of the confidence of his people, for he had in fact been an excellent sovereign.

Gustavus III. succeeded Adolphus Frederick, and reigned from 1771 until 1792. He was an able and artful prince, and within a little more than a year he effected a complete revolution in the government of the country, and brought it back to the absolute form of monarchy which the Revolution of 1693 had given it, but which it had lost by the modifications and exactions which the senate had made in 1718, when Ulrica Eleonora ascended the throne. The Diet was forced to acquiesce in the changes which the king proposed, and which he was prepared to enforce by the troops and cannon with which he surrounded the house in which they met. When the states or branches of the Diet had signed the new form of government and taken their oaths, the king drew a psalm-book from his pocket, and laying aside his crown, he chanted a *Te Deum*, in which he was devoutly joined by the whole assembly. In 1787 war was declared by Sweden against Russia, which lasted until 1790. In this war Gustavus displayed great energy, and commanded in person in some very successful battles. The war was favorable, on the whole, to his arms. In the meanwhile, the revolution in France commenced. In its progress, the king of that country was treated as a prisoner, and finally beheaded. Gustavus prepared to take part against France, and invited all Europe to join in the enterprise. But on the night of March 16th, 1792, he was assassinated at a masked

ball. The regicide was a nobleman of the name of Ankarström, who was one of a secret association of disappointed noblemen, who hated the king for what they deemed his tyrannical conduct in abolishing the former constitution. The author of the crime was publicly whipped on three successive days, was condemned to wear an iron chain on his neck during this punishment, had his right hand cut off on the fourth day, and was then beheaded, and his body impaled upon wheels in different quarters of the city. The king lived twelve days; his wound was in the groin, and was made by a square piece of lead and two nails, shot from a pistol. Before his death, he appointed his brother, the duke of Södermania, regent, until his son, then fourteen years of age, should arrive at eighteen. It has been believed by many, that the Duke of Södermania was at least privy to the murder. Many circumstances looked very much like it.

Gustavus IV., upon attaining his majority, assumed the reins. He was a man of capacity, but of an unstable temperament, and his wisdom was not equal to the generous impulses of his heart. He engaged in a foolish war with Russia, which issued in the loss of Finland to the nation and of the crown to himself; for his subjects—the nobles and the army taking the lead in the matter—compelled him to abdicate in 1809, and retire from the kingdom on a pension. This he did, and lived long in various places in Germany and Switzerland, as a private gentleman, with his family. He died only a few years ago. His oldest son is at present in the Austrian service, and bears the title of Colonel Gustavuson.

The Duke of Södermania was elevated to the throne in place of his nephew, and reigned from 1809 until 1818, under the title of Charles XIII. As he had no son, Prince Christian Augustus of Holstein-Augustenburg was chosen by the Diet to be Crown Prince, or Heir Apparent of

Sweden. But he dying suddenly, a short time after his arrival in the land which had adopted him, the Diet was under the necessity of making a second choice. On this occasion they chose John Baptiste Julian Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo, of France, and at that time a marshal in the service of Napoleon. This occurred in the month of August, 1810; in the month of October the prince arrived in Sweden, was enthusiastically received by the Diet, and took the oath to govern according to the constitution and laws of Sweden. During eight years he was Crown Prince, and bore a large share in the government. In 1818, the old king, Charles XIII., died, and Bernadotte ascended the throne under the title of Charles John XIV. It was greatly through his influence that Sweden joined the Allies in 1813, against Napoleon. With an army of 30,000 Swedes, he arrived in Germany, in the summer of that year, and not many weeks after the battle of Dresden. And the subsequent victorious course which the Allies pursued—one of whose earliest fruits was the victory at Leipsic,—was owing to his wise counsels. As a reward for this conduct, Norway was taken from Denmark, (which had favored the side of Buonaparte) and annexed to Sweden in 1814, as we have stated elsewhere.

Bernadotte has now reigned as king, in Sweden, twenty-three years; and including the period in which he was Crown Prince, he has been thirty-one years in that country; and even his most decided enemies must admit that he has devoted himself with great and persevering zeal to the best interests of the country which adopted him. That his reign has been on the whole, eminently prosperous and happy, cannot be denied. In another place we will give some notices of his life, his actions and his character. What we have now said is sufficient to answer the object of this brief sketch of the history of Sweden.

CHAPTER IX.

VOYAGE FROM GOTTENBURG TO STOCKHOLM.

Bade adieu to friends at Gottenburg—Description of our steam-boat, the *Daniel Thunberg*, and its accommodations—Style of living on board—Use of brandy—Voyage up the Gotha—Falls of Adet—Falls of Trollhätta—A description of them—Canal around these falls—Its history—Its cost—New locks making—Village of Trollhätta—Arrive at Wenersborg—Lake Wener, its extent, its scenery—Lacko Slott—Kinnekulla mountain—West-Gotha canal—Country between Lakes Wener and Wetter—Country-people bring strawberries and other fruits, milk, &c., to the locks—A dance—Our boat descends into Lake Wiöken—Meet the Erick Nordvall—Arrive at Lake Wetter—Fortress of Carlsborg—Its object—Description of Lake Wetter—Great iron-works at Motala—Their cost—Steam-engines made here—Villa of Mr. Stjenseld—Nature of the country through which we passed—Description of the farm-houses, fences, &c.—Church of Vretakloster—Arrive at Söderköping—Appearance of this town—An old Church and organ—Descend the Slätbacken—Pass between the islands and mainland—Enter the canal of Södertelge—Lake Mälär—its scenery—Approach to Stockholm—Fine view—Length of this great line of internal communication, and its cost.

Our brief stay at Gottenburg, on a former visit, was rendered very pleasant by the kind attentions of Mr. Wyk, a distinguished merchant of that city, and member of the Diet of Sweden. At his house we then passed an agreeable evening in the society of his accomplished lady, together with that of Bishop Wingård,—then bishop of Gottenburg, but now archbishop of Sweden, and resident at Upsala,—Major Van Quenten, the secretary of the governor, and other gentlemen. On the present occasion we had the pleasure of finding the same gentlemen in Gottenburg, with the exception of the excellent bishop. Having taken leave of these kind friends, to whom we must add the excellent Rev. Mr. Staré, then pastor of a small Moravian Society in that city, and superintendent of a large and

well conducted female seminary, but since deceased, we set out on our voyage by steam-boat, for Stockholm. This voyage across Sweden by means of canals, lakes, rivers, was one of the most interesting, for the variety of scenes and incidents through which it led, that we have ever made. We will, therefore, be more minute than usual in our notices of it.

Before we actually set out, it may not be amiss to make the reader a little acquainted with our boat and its accommodations; this we will do in few words. We begin by saying that it is small, as it is not possible to pass the locks of the canal around the falls of Trollhätta with a large one. As to the canals and locks which unite Lake Wener to the Baltic, they are far larger, and would admit a boat of considerable size. The engine of our boat is of about 32 horse-power. The boat is well built, and as convenient as one of that size can well be. It has two cabins. The one in the stern has a narrow passage-way through it, and state-rooms on each side. These state-rooms are about seven feet long, by six or seven wide. There is a seat along each side, which at night is converted into a narrow couch or bed. Thus two persons are put in each of these state-rooms or little cabins. But the number of these state-rooms is only eight. Of course the number of sixteen is that of the favored few who occupy this part of the boat. The forward cabin has no state-rooms. It is the *salle à manger*, or eating-room. The stairway leading to it is as nigh being perpendicular as need be. A loose rope runs down for those to hold by who are afraid of falling. Down this way, we must dive into the forward cabin three times a day, to receive our meals. When night comes, the seats along the wall in this cabin are converted into beds, and hammocks are hung from the ceiling. But all this arrangement will not accommodate more than 10 or 12 persons. As to those who have not

the privilege to sleep here, they must lie down on the deck. When the weather is cool, as it is now, the place over the engine and around the chimney of the boilers, is preferred to any other. But when the number of passengers is very great, the whole deck will hardly suffice. An English traveler records that he had seen the deck covered with a mass of humanity to the depth of about two feet. We have never seen any thing like this, and yet we cannot say that we have not seen some strange things in the course of our travels. The deck over the main cabin is elevated about three feet above the rest of the deck, and is provided with seats, and with an awning also when the weather is fine. This is the grand point of rendezvous, morning, noon and night. Here the ladies talk, the gentlemen smoke—not so much the huge German pipe as the cigar. Here, too, the more refined folks, or rather those who are more difficult to please, not only drink their coffee in the early morning, but also have a table spread, and their meals brought to them. Nor need any one wonder at this; for the smells of the forward cabin are not always very savory.

As to our meals, which we pay for at the rate of two rix dollars per day, (or fifty cents of our money), we will describe them briefly. Breakfast at 8 o'clock, consisting of bread, butter, cheese, some cold meat, some warmed meat, and brandy, *à discrétion*, as the French say—that is, without any discretion at all. Dinner at 1 o'clock, consisting of, first, a dish of boiled fish with abundance of sauce, or a dish of boiled meat; secondly, a dish of soup, either a sort of broth, with dumplings in it, or a soup of fruits, such as strawberries and milk, blackberries and milk,—sometimes only sour milk and sugar,—roasted meat and cucumbers; brandy as at breakfast. Supper at 7 or 8 o'clock in the evening, consisting of bread, butter, cheese, as at breakfast, and sometimes a nice dish of rice or

barley ; brandy as at dinner. As to bread, we have some wheat bread, some rye and barley bread, and lastly, a hard baked rye bread, which the Swedes love, and we abominate, called *knäcke bröd*, which is hard enough to break any body's teeth, and is baked twice a year.

August 2d.—At the hour of 5 o'clock this morning our little steamboat, the *Daniel Thunberg*, left the wharf at Gottenburg, loaded with passengers, some of whom were destined for Stockholm, but the majority for Trollhätta and Wenersborg. The weather was anything else than inviting. The heavens were covered with fast-rolling dark clouds, and at intervals there were heavy showers. Our course was up the Götha (pronounced almost as if it were written Yeuta,) which is a small but deep river. Like most other rivers, its course is sufficiently meandering, notwithstanding its rocky banks. The same scenery which prevails around Gottenburg continued for some distance—bare granite rocks, with green fertile spots or slips of land between them, and with here and there a red-roofed house, surrounded with more or less of trees and garden shrubbery. But, as we advanced, there was an increase of rich interval ground,—cultivated as meadows, in which cattle were feeding,—stretching between the river and the ridges of rocks which form the grand boundaries of the Götha. As we still advanced, some degree of vegetation showed itself on the hitherto naked rocks ; and by and by some stunted pines were seen, covering their dark sides and summits, wherever there was a crevice to afford them a foot-hold and nutriment.

About 11 o'clock we passed two locks a quarter of a mile apart, in a side canal, to overcome the fall in the Götha at the village of Edet. These locks are made of great blocks of hewn granite. The fall, or cataract, at this point, is a beautiful and striking one. The river pours its waters over a steep rocky surface, almost per-

pendicularly. The fall must be 20 or 25 feet, in the course of a few rods. The quantity of water is very considerable; for the Götha is the only outlet of the large lake Wener, into which many streams flow. If this fall were not in the neighborhood of Trollhätta it would, in our opinion, be ~~esteemed~~ a wonderful thing, and much more admired ~~than now~~. Advantage is taken of the immense water-power which the descent in the river gives, and many saw-mills are erected, chiefly on the Edet or left bank, where a great quantity of timber, which is floated down from Lake Wener, is sawed, and the planks sent to Gottenburg for exportation.

Above Edet the country becomes still better. Vegetation is far more abundant, and the houses of the peasants thicken on every side. They are almost all built of wood, and are generally painted red, or what approaches to that color; and many of the abodes of the more opulent farmers are really beautifully situated, and altogether display very considerable taste.

At length we arrived, at about 2 o'clock, P. M., at the canal and locks of Trollhätta,* made to overcome a de-

* As a brief history of this great internal improvement may be interesting to the reader, we subjoin this note. Gustavus Wasa was the first king of Sweden who proposed to make a canal between the Baltic and the North Sea; nothing was, however, done in his day. His son, Charles IX., made the canal above the Trollhätta falls, called the canal of Carlsgrap, which unites the river Götha to the lower extremity of Lake Wener. The canal at Edet was made during the reign of Christina, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus. During the reigns of Frederick I., Adolphus Frederick, and Gustavus III., an attempt was made to form a canal around the falls themselves. During six years, from 1749-55, this work was prosecuted under an eminent engineer, named Wiman. But just as he had, at great expense, nearly completed a dam, or breastwork, in the river, some enemies of the enterprise (as is believed) threw many hundreds of planks into the river above, which descended with such force as to break down the dam.

scent in the river of 120 feet in the course of a little more than the distance of an English mile. After having gone through the three lower locks, and passed through a little expansion of the canal, we came to the grand series of five locks, at the steep and almost perpendicular ledge of rocks which had to be overcome in making this canal around the celebrated falls of Trollhätta. These locks are hewn out of the solid rock, and are really a stupendous affair. It cost a vast sum to make them, inasmuch as they are excavated through the hardest granite. The gates are enormous, for they are the deepest locks that we have ever seen, being nearly, if not quite, 13 feet each. Another and a larger set of locks are now making, to the right of these, it being found that one set is not enough for the accumulated business of the canal.

As it required at least three hours to pass the steam-boat through all these eight canals, we took that time for visiting the celebrated falls in this vicinity. So, taking a guide, we walked along the canal above the locks until we

This occurred on the night of the 19th of September, 1755. The whole enterprise was abandoned, and was not resumed until 1798, when a company was formed with many privileges, and considerable aid was granted by the State in the shape of timber, &c., for the accomplishment of the work. On the 14th of August, 1800, the first boat passed through the series of eight locks, and the canal which completed the navigable communication around these falls, and so rendered the navigation of the river complete, from Lake Wener to Gottenburg, a distance of about 60 English miles. In all this distance the extent of canal is but a few miles, and the entire number of locks is thirteen. We know not what the short canal at Edet cost, nor the more considerable one of Carlsgraf. But we know that the canal with its eight locks, around the Trollhätta falls, cost 358,988 rix dollars, or \$134,620. The width of the lock is twenty-two feet, and the depth of water nearly thirteen feet. The stock yields scarcely any interest. At this time another set of locks are making at these falls, as well as at those of Edet, and Åkerström below, and those of Carlsgraf above.

came to a fine little lake which serves the purpose of a harbor for the many vessels which pass the canal, and is most romantically situated amidst a dense forest. Thence we turned to the left, and soon came to the high banks of the falls. The point at which we arrived is opposite to the lowest of the series of cataracts which compose this remarkable fall. Here, standing on a platform of rock, or a granite hill, we saw one of the grandest spectacles which it has ever been our privilege to behold. As we looked up to our right, as well as immediately forward, the river in its descent assumed the appearance of what at first might almost be taken for a mass of snow, lying between huge barriers of dark, or rather violet-colored rocks, which are covered with a few stunted pines and small underwood. The roar of the waters here is great, and their motion truly sublime. Upon a close-examination, what appeared, at first sight, to be a continuous foaming mass of rolling waters, becomes divisible into several successive cataracts. The one opposite to us was the most clearly defined of all. The waters, having descended the upper cataracts, enter an expansion of the river, or what may be called a small lake. There they flow forward, and after rolling back again in eddies on each side, they are at length borne away and descend the last cataract; when tumbling, mass on mass, they foam, as if lashed into the greatest fury. Finally, they make a descent which is almost perpendicular, into a basin, or another expansion in the form of a lake, where, after boiling round and round in vast eddies, they roll onward in a less infuriated state in their oceanward course. After having contemplated a long time the scene from this spot, we proceeded up the bank to another point of view, where, standing opposite the foot of the upper series of cataracts, we could look up, and have an uninterrupted view of this grand prospect. Here the eye can trace every change in

the vast, descending, foaming mass of waters. Here one can see the river separating itself at the head of the cataract, and passing, in two white sheets of water, around an island of one or two acres in extent and covered with a wild forest of trees, and on which the foot of man dares not to tread. A little lower, the river again separates and encloses in its snowy embrace an islet which consists of nothing but a black mass of rock, having on it a few small pine trees and bushes. At the foot of this islet of rock the two branches come together with a fury which is indescribable, and roll foaming away, and so pass beneath the elevated rock where we were standing. The view from this point is interesting, because it enables one to take in at a glance all the parts of the upper fall, in the most distinct manner. The view from our first station was too distant a one to do this.

But we advanced still farther, and took a position higher up; it was on the little island of rock, which we have just mentioned. We gained ~~that~~ point by crossing over a bridge which has lately been erected for the purpose of enabling strangers to reach that island with more safety than they did when we were here on a former occasion; for then only a narrow foot-way of a couple of planks existed, without anything to keep one from falling overboard. The view from this point is truly sublime. You have come so near that you seem to touch, instead of seeing the cataract. You feel that you are in the midst of it. Around the base of the little rocky island on which you stand, the cataract foams and roars, and you almost fear that its foundations, though they are of granite, may give way, and the whole mass, with you on it, be carried headlong into the vortex of raging waters below. It is imposing to look up from this rock, and see the waters whirling and tumbling around the dark island of forest above. But it is nothing in comparison with what strikes you when, stand-

ing on the lowest verge of the rock, you look down on the mighty congress of waters which takes place at that point.

Repassing the bridge connecting the little island with the mainland, we ascended still higher and stood opposite the point where the fall commences, just at the head of the island covered with wood. Here the view is very limited, but perhaps more striking than anywhere else. You look up and see the river, which is not more than two hundred yards wide, moving onwards to the cataract. At first it comes along slowly and gently. Shortly its rapidity visibly increases. Then, as it approaches the very point of almost perpendicular descent its appearance is most striking. Not a ripple is yet seen in its dark waters. It glides along in the smoothest manner conceivable, and unbroken it sweeps down the fall in its smooth channel until it strikes the opposing rocks that lie in the bottom at this point, at the depth, on the left side of the island, of some fifteen feet, and on the right side of it, at a depth much greater. The moment the waters strike against these rocks they lose their dark liquid form. In the twinkling of an eye they roll up in vast waves of pure white foam, and hasten away to unite again, at the foot of the wooded island, or rather more completely to meet at the foot of the little rocky island. It is striking to observe the beauty of the motion, the graceful curving of the waters as they descend until they strike against the rocky obstacles at the bottom; then the beauty of the scene changes into sublimity. After that, until the waters have wholly passed the series of cataracts, and become calm and smooth in the distance, it is not the beautiful, but the powerful, the grand, that seizes and astonishes the mind. We are struck with the thought that an element so gentle as water, when not in motion, or when its movement is slow, may be made to exert such a force that no resistance of man can be of any avail.

Take it all in all, the Trollhätta falls are by far the grandest of those which are to be found in Europe. We need not say that they cannot be compared with those of Niagara. They are of a different sort. They far surpass the Trenton falls in the state of New York. The volume of water is much greater, and the descent lies within a shorter distance,—not exceeding in fact an English mile. But the Trenton falls are more beautiful, and the scenery around is finer, having been thus far permitted to remain in its primitive state. We greatly fear, however, that some *utilitarian* will, before long, commence the cutting down of the forest which now adds so much to the beauty of the scenery of those falls, and set about the erection of saw-mills and cotton factories. This same spirit has invaded and disfigured the scene around the Trollhätta falls. Many saw-mills have been erected by Englishmen and others, near the upper cataract, on the left bank of the river. It is a matter of gratitude, however, that the whole of the right bank, and the lower portion of the left, are permitted to remain as God made them, their great rocky sides and summits covered with pines and wild flowers.

In going from the point of view on the little island, to the upper station at the head of the cataract, we passed by a very striking natural curiosity. It is that of an immense throne in granite. One can see distinctly what it requires no great stretch of the imagination to suppose to be like the seat, the back, and arms or sides of the seat of royalty. It is large enough for at least a dozen of men to stand huddled together in it. Here are engraved, in rude letters, the names of several of the Swedish sovereigns who have visited this scene. Among others, that of the present king, Charles John XIV., is twice recorded,—in 1813 and 1824.

A considerable village has sprung up in the vicinity of

Advancing further, we had a fine view of a mountain on our right, called Kinnekulla, which is of an insulated form, and around whose widely extended base a firmly cultivated country spreads. On this side (the southern) of the lake are the two important towns of Lidköping (pronounced *Leedcheeping*) and Mariestad.

About two o'clock in the afternoon we reached the eastern side of the lake, after passing many beautiful islands in that part of our course, some of which are inhabited, and entered the West Gotha Canal, which unites Lakes Wener and Wetter. Our progress during the remainder of the day was far from being rapid. Nineteen locks had to be passed before we reached the table land whence the waters run into both lakes. The country through which we passed this afternoon was much more level than any which we had hitherto seen in Sweden, and is comparatively thickly settled. The canal runs in the neighborhood of many villages and towns. The soil seems to be good, but light. The whole appearance of the country reminds us much of that which lies between Boston and New Bedford, and that between the latter and Providence. The houses of the peasants or farmers are log cabins, in many cases painted entirely red, in others the doors and window-frames are red; but in the majority of cases the buildings of all kinds are left in the natural color of the wood, which soon assumes a weather-beaten, brownish appearance. The people, like the rustic population of all parts of Sweden which we have ever seen, seemed to be a light-hearted, plain, frugal, hard-working folk. Many of the women and children, as we passed along, came to the locks, with baskets of strawberries, and other fruits of the season, cakes, butter, and bottles of milk and beer, which they sold to the passengers. In many places, the men and women were in the meadows making hay. The grain harvest had not yet commenced. At one place, we

found quite an assemblage of the peasant population amusing themselves with dancing, a pastime which the Swedes and Norwegians are extremely fond of, and which they practise quite as much as the French. On the occasion to which we have just referred, our passengers all went to see the sport, as the house where the concourse took place was near to two or three locks. And whilst the boat was passing through them, some of our gentlemen joined the circle of dancers, and for a while "tripped it on the light fantastic toe," with Maria and Joanna,* the servant-maids of the boat, who, by way of refreshing themselves after their manifold labors, betook themselves to waltzing. The contagion spread. Soon the sound of the violin and the guitar was heard on the forward deck, and they went to dancing there. In a short time our boat had passed the locks, the signal was given, the passengers scampered on board, the peasants scampered off, and we were under way again. At the going down of the sun we came to, for the night, in a very pleasant part of the country. Far and wide lay fields of growing rye and barley, and meadows which had just been mown; and from which the weary hay-makers were returning to their homes. *

And here we ought to say, that our fellow-passengers, who are all Swedes and Germans, were, without exception, extremely pleasant people. The few days which we spent together passed away in a very agreeable manner. We were much struck, however, and pained, too, with the universal use of brandy by the gentlemen. As we have stated elsewhere, brandy is placed on the table at breakfast, dinner, and supper. It forms a constituent part of these meals. It is included in the bill as a part of them. But if one asks for tea or coffee, that forms an extra charge. We had not a few discussions with our fellow-passengers

* Or Marie and Yohanna, as the Swedes pronounce these names.

on the subject of brandy-drinking in this country. It is awful to think of the extent to which this dreadful evil exists in Sweden; and it is not less awful to see what its effects are in rendering men blind and stupid in relation to this subject. It is fearful to see to what a degree the energy and resolution of this brave people are becoming invaded and impaired, by the great and ruinous indulgence of the propensity to drink ardent spirits. Often is it said to us by Swedish gentlemen, when they perceive that we drink no ardent spirits of any kind, "We approve of your principles and your conduct in relation to this matter; we wish we could do so—but we cannot live without brandy." Alas, that the descendants of Gustavus Wasa, Gustavus Adolphus, and Charles XII., should become so degenerate as to talk in this way! In the days of these great men, the Swedes were a most temperate people. Charles XII. did not drink wine—no, not even in his great and fatiguing campaigns.

At an early hour on the third day, our boat got under way; but we had not proceeded more than some five or six miles, before we were compelled, by a dense fog, which seemed to hide every thing from the view, to stop and lie by during several hours.

Shortly after we had started again, we entered the long, semi-circular lake of Wiken, which may be considered as the most elevated sheet of water in our course. The navigation of this lake requires care, on account of the hidden rocks which lie in the bottom. In many places the channel for the steam-boat is indicated by stakes or poles, driven down in the water. In traversing this lake, we met the steam-boat *Erik Nordvall*, which left Stockholm at the same hour that we left Gottenburg. From Lake Wiken, we passed, by a crooked, picturesque channel, partly natural and partly artificial, into Lake Wetter. In this part of our course, we met the first of the descending

series of locks. The scenery around was wild and rocky, until we reached Lake Wetter. We had now passed the summit level, or the point which separates the waters flowing into the Cattegat, from those falling into the Baltic. Henceforth our course must be a descending one, until we enter the Baltic Sea, at the mouth of the Slätbacken River, which is the outlet of Lake Wetter. Between Lake Wiken and Lake Wetter, we passed two or three small lakes, or ponds, of which advantage was taken in constructing the artificial part of the channel through which we sailed. On a promontory which projects into Lake Wetter, on the west side, and near to which we passed, stands the strong fortress of Carlsborg. This fortress is of an irregular shape. The ramparts are high, and made of vast mounds of earth, and sodded. There is much to do to this fortress still. Many men are constantly engaged in enlarging and strengthening it. Certainly, when well armed and manned, it would be extremely difficult to take. In case of necessity, the archives and treasury of the state, the crown jewels, and other valuable property which can be removed, would be transferred to this place for safe-keeping. Without doubt, no better place could be chosen. Here, in the heart of the kingdom, in this strong and almost inaccessible place, security may be found, if any where.

Lake Wetter is about 100 English miles in length, and 22 in width. It is wholly different from Lake Wener in its features. It is deeper, and more free from islands. There are some fine headlands in sight, on each side, as one passes across it. We entered it about ten o'clock in the morning, and reached the eastern shore at about one in the afternoon. The weather was fine, and our passage was smooth and agreeable. The "sea" is sometimes terrible in this lake, when the wind blows strongly from the south or north. Lake Wetter, Lake Wener, and, indeed, all the

other lakes of Sweden, are frozen over in winter; when the inhabitants use them much for traveling, and for conveying their produce, by sledges, on the ice. The vehicles are drawn by horses, or are driven by *sails*! We believe that this latter method of traveling is confined to the lakes of Sweden.

Upon reaching the eastern coast of this lake, we entered a canal which runs along the valley of the outlet of the lake to the east, and continued to pursue it until it ended in Lake Boren, by a descent of some five or six locks. Not far from Lake Wetter, we passed *Motala*,* where is the largest establishment for the manufacturing of steam-engines that exists in Sweden. It is exceedingly complete, and includes a number of large buildings. This establishment employs upwards of two hundred hands. It cost about half a million of banco-dollars, (\$187,500,) and was sold, a few months ago, to a new company, for 200,000 banco-dollars, or \$75,000 of our currency. The superintendent, an Englishman, told us, that the use of ardent spirits by the men, is one of the greatest obstacles which they have to encounter.

The scenery around Lake Boren is extremely beautiful. Several fine villages appear on the shores, in various directions. A beautiful palace, belonging to the present minister of Foreign Affairs, Mr. Stienweld, stands on a peninsula, on the southern side of it. It is really an enchanting place.

From Boren, our course was by a canal, parallel with the outlet of that lake, through a most beautiful and finely cultivated country, down to Lake Roxen, a considerable sheet of water, and of a length much exceeding its breadth.

* Just before reaching Motala, we passed, on our left hand, a marble monument, erected to the memory of Count Von Platen, who was chiefly instrumental in building this canal.

The more we see of Sweden, the more it reminds us of New England. Although our course, since leaving the falls of Trollhätta, has been through a country comparatively level, yet the rocks show themselves in all directions, peering up here and there in the fields and in the forest. Notwithstanding this, the quantity of arable land is very considerable, especially since we left Lake Wetter. In Sweden, too, as in New England, the fields are separated from each other by fences, either of wood or of stone—the wood greatly predominating. But the wood-fence of Sweden is very different from any which we have ever seen in our own country. The rails are laid slantingly upon one another, in a straight line, just as the blocks which children have first placed in a row, and then pushed over. Stakes are placed on each side, firmly driven into the ground, which keep the rails in their proper place. The houses in this part of the country, as in that which we passed yesterday, are all built of wood, most of them of hewn logs. In the majority of cases they are not painted; but sometimes one sees all the houses of a farm, from the dwelling-house down to the pig-stye, including even the barn, painted a dark red. In many cases, too, the roofs are of tiles, of a less bright color than that of the sides of the building.

Throughout Sweden, as throughout New England, the Parish church is the most important building in every large village. These churches invariably have steeples, and are built either of brick or stone, and painted a bright white color. Their appearance is very pleasant, and reminds the traveler that he is in a Christian land. The church-going bell never sounds more sweetly to the ear of one who loves the House of God, than when heard in a foreign land.

As we approached Lake Roxen, the view became delightful. Before us lay the lake. Beyond it, the white

churches, and their steeples, of several villages, away in the distance, reflected mildly the flood of light which was poured upon them from the sun, declining through a cloudless sky. Whilst, still further, the soft azure which one sees only in the waning of a summer's day, terminated the prospect in obscurity. Whilst our boat was passing several locks, which let her down to the lake, we went to see the venerable old church of *Vretakloster*, which was built eight hundred years ago, and in which are entombed some two or three of the early sovereigns of Sweden. The tomb of one who reigned in the eleventh century, was pointed out to us. The church is a fine old specimen of the Gothic architecture. It is built of stone. In one of the chapels are many coffins of the Douglass family, of Scottish origin, who lived in Sweden some two centuries ago, and were distinguished for their wealth.

Having stopped for the night at the point where the canal falls into the western side of Lake Roxen, we crossed that lake early the next morning, and then, leaving the valley of the natural outlet of this lake, which falls into an arm of the Baltic at Norrköping, we entered the canal which connects this lake with another arm of the Baltic, more to the south than that into which the natural outlet falls. This led us through a highly picturesque country, consisting of hills of granite, covered with pines, wherever the rocky mass allows a foothold for vegetation, and deep ravines and valleys intervening. The course of the canal was very meandering. In some places it runs along the side of what might almost be called a mountainous ridge, whilst a deep ravine lay below. At every turn, some variety in the scene met our eye. The country is as well cultivated as its nature will allow. What soil there is appears to be good; and fields of rye and barley, and, in a few cases, of wheat, beginning to turn yellow for the sickle of the husbandman, met our view on all sides.

At length, after passing many locks, we arrived at Söderköping, an ancient town of a singular appearance, but which gives a good idea of the towns in this part of Sweden. The houses are chiefly built of wood: some are of hewn logs, but most are of framed timber, with planks running up and down, instead of horizontally. Some of the houses are painted yellow, some white, some green, but most are of a blood-red color: all are covered with tiles. The streets are very irregular, paved with round stones, and destitute of side-walks. There is in this town an old church, built of brick, which is a curious specimen of the Gothic style of architecture. It was built between three and four hundred years ago; its high gable-ends, exceeding the roof in height and diminishing by steps, like those of some of the houses in Holland, have a singular appearance. There is a large painting over the altar which was made by a peasant, and does him much credit. It represents the visit of the wise men to Joseph and Mary after the birth of the Saviour. The organ of this church is a curious old affair; it was brought from Poland, and must be very old; it was one of the trophies of the Swedish conquests in that land. The aisles of the church are overlaid with tombstones, which probably cover vaults. The seats or pews are very plain; each of them has a label containing the names of the occupants of it. On one we observed the names of an *apothecary*, an *engineer*, a *lieutenant*, a *mechanic* and two *gentlemen*.

At the distance of less than three miles below Söderköping, the canal terminated at the village of Mem, where it joins the Slätbacken, an estuary of the Baltic. From that point our course lay down that estuary to its mouth. The scenery on the Slätbacken is bold and imposing. The granite hills almost rise to mountains in places. Their hoary sides are seen between the pines which cover them. The bottom lands, and the sides of

the hills, are cultivated, and many a pleasant farm-house appears on either shore. In one place stands, on an island, an old round tower, of considerable height, and around its base are the crumbling walls of an ancient château, which once belonged, we are informed, to the sovereigns of Sweden, but now belongs to a count of Schwerin.

After leaving the Slätbacken our course lay to the north, or rather east, through the islands which bound the coast on this side of Sweden. These islands are of all forms, large and small, consisting of naked rocks, or covered either wholly or partially with pine. A few houses and fields are seen on some of them. We stopped half an hour at one of them called Long Island, to take in wood. There is nothing, however, about these islands to render them worthy of notice. They are a part of the island-zone which surrounds the whole Scandinavian Peninsula. In the harbors formed by them, as well as in those of the mainland, the numerous gun-boats of Sweden find a hiding-place. And here they lie ready for action, whenever their services may be needed.

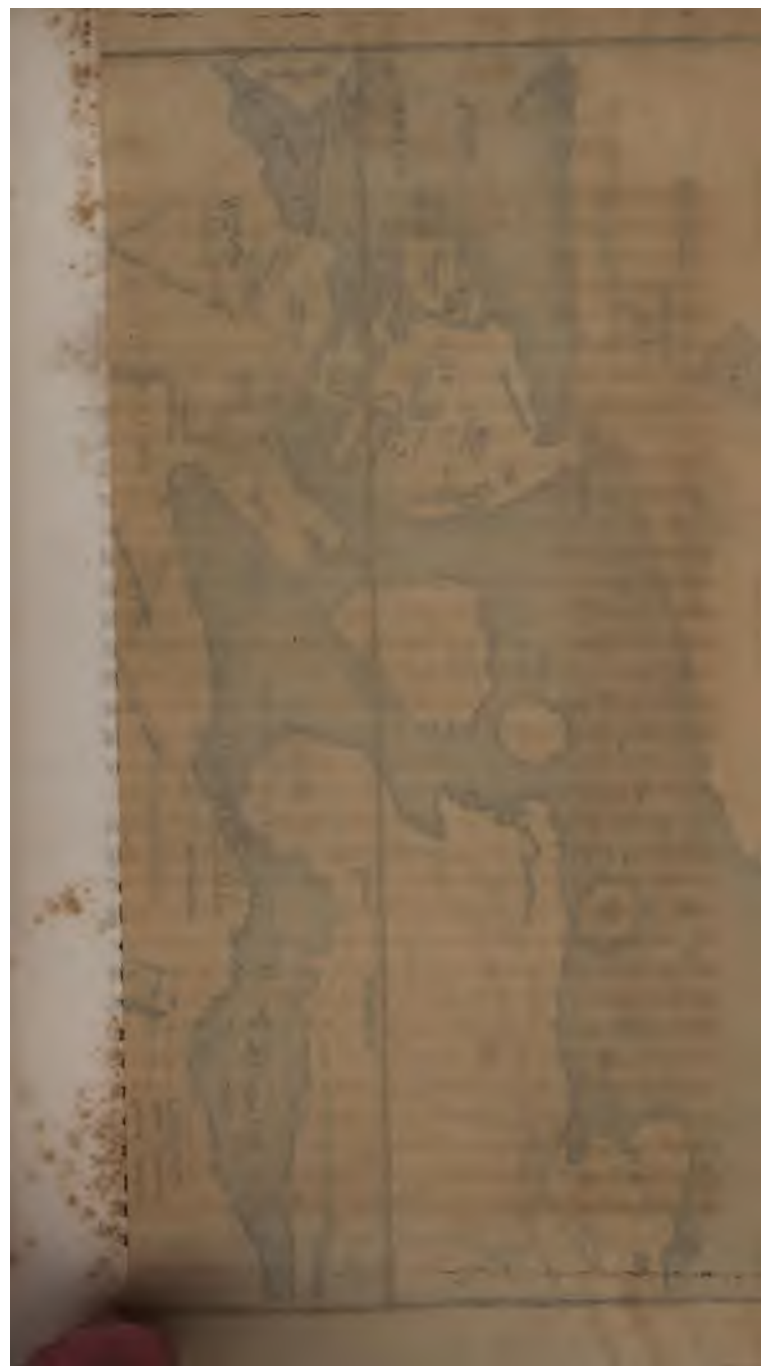
About midnight we arrived at the canal of Södertelge, which is about two miles in length, and which opens up a passage for steam-boats and other vessels from the Baltic into Lake Mälär. Here we remained until the morning light appeared.

August 6th.—At 3 o'clock this morning we got under way again, and passing through the canal of Södertelge, which has a lock of 3 feet of elevation of water, we entered the Mälär sea, as it is called, and shaped our course through its innumerable islands and islets towards the city of Stockholm, which is situated at the point where this lake joins the Baltic. The voyage down this lake is very beautiful. It is amid islands which lie thickly strewn through this inland sea, and most of them covered with the primitive pine and other small trees:

In the neighborhood of the capital, many of these islands are adorned with villas; on a few are villages, with churches, whose tapering spires are seen far in the distance. On a bold projecting crag that overhung our course is placed what is called the Iron Hat. Tradition says that an ancient king of Sweden, surrounded by enemies, fought, retreating until he reached this rock, and then leaped into the Mälar, and escaped by swimming to the other side.

At length Stockholm opened upon our view as we passed down a narrow and straight vista between the islands. We had thus a kaleidoscopic view of the city, which enlarged as we drew nearer. Finally the whole city burst upon our vision, when we were about a mile from it. Before we had touched the wharf, several boats rowed by Dalecarlian women, passed our boat on their trips to various stations along the shores of the lake. Soon the formality of receiving a visit from a Custom-house officer was gone through, and we were allowed once more to land in this very pleasant city.

And thus was concluded a voyage of four days through varied and picturesque scenery and along a line of internal communication, partly natural and partly artificial, of about 350 English miles. The extent of canal probably exceeds 50 English miles, without including the enlarged and deepened portions of rivers and creeks. It is but a few years since this line of internal communication was completed. It was undertaken by a company of shareholders. The stock was originally about 3,000,000 of our dollars. But their funds failed, and the government was forced to come to their help. The entire cost of this great work, from Lake Wener to Lake Mälar, was about \$4,875,000. It yields an interest of about three per cent. It does not include the canals on the Götha river, which were made forty years ago, and belong to another company.



CHAPTER X.

DESCRIPTION OF STOCKHOLM, AND AN ACCOUNT OF THE DIET OF SWEDEN.

Origin of the name of this city—Its history—Its situation, on seven islands and the adjoining shores of the mainland—A description of the most important of these islands—Streets narrow in the oldest part of the city—Fine view of the city from St. Catherine's Church, and from Mosebacke or Mount Plagah—Church of Riddarholm, the Westminster Abbey of Sweden—Tombs of Gustavus Adolphus, Charles XII., Gustavus III., etc.—Statue of Gustavus Wasa—Town House—The mint—Palace of the king, one of the finest in Europe—Its history—Its ornaments—Royal curiosities in the uppermost story—Hat worn by Charles XII. when he was mortally wounded—His sword—Remarkable inscription on it—Church of St. Nicholas—Place and statue of Gustavus Adolphus—Statue of Charles XIII.—Mr. Von Hartmannsdorff—Baron Berzelius—His character and employments—Diet of Sweden—Composed of four Houses or Branches—How constituted—Origin of the Diet—House of Peasants or Farmers—Number of members—How elected and paid—Character of this House—A peculiarity in its government—Character of the speeches of this House—House of the Burgesses, how elected and paid—Distinguished men in it—House of the Clergy—Its character—How elected—Distinguished men in this House—This House conservative in its character—House of the Nobles—How constituted—Number of its members—Coat of arms of each member—Distinguished men in this House—Manner in which the Diet votes—The increased committee resorted to in case of an equal division in the four Houses—Number of members in the whole Diet—This form of a Legislature too clumsy and unwieldy—Need of reform great, and at this time much desired.

STOCKHOLM, like Copenhagen, is comparatively a modern city. It was founded about the middle of the 13th century. Its name is derived from the word *stock*, the trunk of a tree, and *holm*, an island. Tradition says, that a fisherman who lived on Lake Mälär, having had his house twice destroyed by fire, cast a "stock" of wood into the water and followed its course in his boat, resolved to erect his next dwelling on the spot where the block of wood

should be arrested. The "holm" or island, where its course was stopped, is now Stockholm, the Island of the Stock.

In the earliest times, there was nothing but a village of fishermen's huts on the central island of the site of the modern city. This island is celebrated in the history of those early times for a tragical event which occurred on it. Agne, the twelfth of the line of the Ynglings, and a descendant of Odin, had ravaged the coast of Finland, and carried off Skialf, daughter of a chieftain whom he had killed. This captive lady he resolved to marry on his return to his native land. The appointed day arrived; the marriage occurred on this island. But the king became so drunk of *miöd*, that he lay helpless in his tent. In this condition his spouse hung him during the night, by suspending him with a golden chain which he wore around his neck, to the tree around which his tent was erected, and then, with her companions, seizing the ships of Agne, escaped to her native land. For a long time the island bore the name of Agne. Many came to see the spot where this remarkable event had occurred, and being pleased with the place, and struck with its convenient situation, they settled there and founded a considerable town. However, nothing that deserves the name of a city existed, until Birger Jarl, in 1255, made it the place of his abode. From that time it increased more rapidly. Like all other capitals of that age, it was a fortress as well as a city. In after days it became the theatre of not a few thrilling events. It was here that Christina Gyllenstierna, the widow of Sten Sture, made so glorious a defence against Christian II., King of Denmark, after her husband had been mortally wounded in the battle of Bogesund. Unable longer to defend the place, she capitulated, obtaining the promise of amnesty for her followers. But scarcely had the tyrant entered the city before he ordered a scaffold to be erected,

on which many of the most distinguished men of the country lost their heads, among whom was the father of Gustavus Wasa.

Stockholm stands in north lat. $59^{\circ} 20'$, and east long. $17^{\circ} 40'$ from Greenwich. With the exception of St. Petersburg, it is the largest city in the world that is situated so far to the north. Its situation is picturesque and beautiful; it stands on seven islands and the opposite banks of the mainland, just at the point where Lake Mälär joins an estuary or bay which puts up from the Baltic. This bay, like the lake which here unites with it, abounds in islands, so that at no one place does it have any great extent of open water. On the other hand, Lake Mälär rolls its waters from the west, and contracts, as it approaches the city, to the width of an English mile. Just at the point where it unites with the bay which puts up from the east, there lie several islands. One of these is in the centre of the gentle rapids, through which the waters of the lake flow into the bay; it is of considerable size, and its highest or central part is elevated some forty or fifty feet above the bay and the lake. This was the first part of the city that was settled. It is called to this day The City, just as the largest island in the heart of Paris is called *La Cité*. On the upper end of this island stands the magnificent royal palace, one of the most noble structures of the kind in Europe. A small island lies on the southern side of this larger one, and near the upper end of it. On this island, which is connected with the larger one by a bridge, stood the ancient palace, which preceded in existence the one of which we have just spoken. A very old round brick tower still remains in the upper end of this little island, which probably formed a part of an ancient palace or some work of defence. On the southern side of this island, and near the landing place for the steam-boats on Lake Mälär, stand several large buildings, which are

used as public offices and for holding courts; and about the centre of it stands the Westminster Abbey of Sweden, the old church of the Riddarholm.

To the north of the largest island lies another small island, which has a surface of about an acre in extent. A bridge passes from the large island, just opposite the north front of the palace of the king, over to this small island, and thence over to the mainland. This small island contains a few dwelling houses, together with the king's stables. The lower part of it, as well as the banks of the mainland and the largest island, is bordered by a wall composed of large blocks of hewn granite, and presents a noble appearance. It is to be regretted that the upper part is not enclosed in a similar manner. Indeed, the whole island should be cleared of the buildings which are on it, and turned into a beautiful garden, as the lower end of it now is. It might be made a spot of surpassing loveliness. The lower end, beneath the bridge, furnishes a charming retreat in the warm weather, by the sweet walks under its thick-grown trees.

In the upper part of the city, and along the north side of Lake Mälär, lies a large island, called King's island, on which a great portion of the city stands, and which is united to the mainland by two bridges, one of which is of considerable length. On this island stand the two hospitals of Stockholm, one of which is civic, and the other military. Both are large establishments, and kept in the best manner. In the civic hospital, or the hospital for citizens, we found a very worthy physician attending, and who now gives lectures in the hospital to medical students, that is a lineal descendant of Huss, the celebrated Bohemian martyr.

To the eastward of the central islands—of which we first spoke,—there lies a small island, on which stands a round, low, unfinished church, which is occupied by the

seamen appertaining to the Royal Navy. Here lie a number of gun-boats. Still further to the east, or rather northeast, lie two other islands of considerable extent, one of which, in fact, is very large, and is converted into one of the finest pleasure grounds which we have ever seen. It is called Djurgarden, which signifies a park. A few houses stand on the upper ~~end~~ of it, and it is connected by a bridge with the northern part of the city.

A large part of the city stands on the northern mainland. This is the newest part, and is built more according to modern style. The streets are wide, and the houses more uniform, and display more architectural taste. On the other hand, there is a large portion or suburb of the city, on the south side of the lake and the bay. Two drawbridges unite this suburb to the main centre island. The bank on the southern side is steep, and the houses rise rapidly, one above another, in rows along narrow streets. From the tower of St. Catherine's church, on this side, there is an admirable prospect over all the city, with its islands, and intervening channels of water, with the expanse of the lake in the west, and that of the bay in the east, each abounding in islands. Every one who visits Stockholm ought to ascend to this height as soon as possible after his arrival, and gain from it an accurate idea of this most beautifully situated city. One thing will strike his attention as soon as his eye has extended its vision beyond the boundaries of the city, and that is, that it stands in the midst of uncultivated nature. At no great distance, forests of low pine and fir surround the city, save where water fills up the outline, and scarcely a field of any description is to be seen within the entire prospect.

The houses of the city are almost wholly built of brick, stuccoed, and generally painted white. A few are of a dark yellow. They are from three to five stories high, and

covered either with tiles or sheet iron. On the centre island, or oldest part of the city, the streets are narrow and crooked. In many of them a cart can hardly pass. Several do not exceed ten or twelve feet in width. In this respect, this quarter of the city reminds one much of portions of the city of Genoa. The streets are almost all without comfortable side-walks, and many of them have none at all. They are paved with smooth round stones, and are any thing else than very pleasant for walking. They are better, however, than those of Copenhagen and some other cities which we have visited on this tour. In the suburbs, there are still to be seen some wooden houses, almost all of which are low and painted yellow.

In the southern portion of the city there is nothing which merits particular notice. It is the point of the greatest elevation, and from which, as has already been intimated, one may obtain the best view of the city, either from the tower of St. Catherine's church, or from a very pleasant garden on the brow of the hill, called "Mosebacke"—Mount of Moses, or Mount Pisgah. If we, therefore, cross over by a boat, and land on the small island which lies between the southern part of the city and the largest and most central island, we shall find ourselves near to the Riddarholm church, or the church of the Island of the Nobles, as that little island is called. This church contains the remains of the kings of Sweden, from the time of Charles IX., the third son of Gustavus Wasa, until the present day. Many other distinguished men of the kingdom have found their last resting-place here. There is nothing remarkable about the exterior of this old church, save that it has not the least pretensions to architectural grandeur. It is built of brick, in Gothic style, is low, and has so many discordant additions of one shape and another—one of which is a sort of mausoleum of Charles XII.—that it has anything else than an imposing

appearance. A few years ago the tower was struck with lightning and destroyed. It has since been rebuilt; the lower portion of brick, and the upper part, which tapers beautifully and conically away, of iron. Its height is such as to render it one of the first objects which one sees when approaching the city. In this church rest the remains of the great Gustavus Adolphus. His coffin bears the simple inscription, "*Moriens triumphavit*,"—he died triumphing. Here, too, are interred Charles X., Charles XI., and Charles XII. The monument erected to the last-named monarch has sculptured on it a lion's skin and a club, after the fashion of Hercules. This church is, in fact, the only one in Stockholm which is any way remarkable. As to the others, the most of them are large and good churches, containing ornamented pulpits and altars, some pictures, &c., but nothing that requires special notice.

Leaving the Riddarholm church we pass over a short bridge, and reach the central island of the city. At once we come to a small public Place, which lies in front of the House of Nobles; that is, the house where this branch of the Swedish Parliament, or Diet, holds its meetings. This building is somewhat remarkable. It is of brick, with intervening columns of stone, in the shape of pilasters. But in front of the Nobles' House stands a fine bronze statue of Gustavus Wasa, the workmanship of Serpel, and erected in the last century, by order of the Nobles. Adjoining the House of Nobles is a large and convenient Court-house, or Town-house, as it is commonly called; and further on, as one advances towards the palace, is the Mint, which is a sort of pentagon in shape, and stands but a few rods from the northwestern corner of the palace.

But the Palace is the chief object of interest, as a public edifice, which one finds in Stockholm. This grand château is of the form of a hollow square. All its sides are equal; and its height may be said to be four stories. It is

built of brick and stuccoed, and is of great extent. As the site on which it stands is elevated, it stands out as the most prominent object in the entire city, and has a most striking appearance as one approaches it, no matter from what direction. The north side faces the bridge which leads from the central island across the small island which we have described as situated at this point, to the noble Place which lies on the northern mainland, and which is surrounded by fine buildings. The ascent to the grand entrance of the palace, on this side, is by inclined planes along the side, and which are bounded by massy walls of hewn granite. On the eastern side of the palace two wings project, and a very pleasant little garden lies between them, and between the main body of the palace and the wide street between it and the harbor, which makes round on that side of the island, and which is filled often with smaller vessels, steam-boats, &c. On the southern side of the palace lies a long and narrow Place, extending from the water's edge up to the church of St. Nicholas, which stands not far from the southwestern corner of the palace. In the upper part of this Place, and near to the palace, stands a granite obelisk, erected by Gustavus III. to commemorate the fidelity of the citizens of Stockholm; who, during his absence in the war against Russia, undertook the defence of the city; and at the lower, or eastern end, of this Place, stands a bronze statue of the same monarch, which rests on a porphyry base. On the west side there is a semi-circular low building for the guards.

On the site which the palace occupies Count Tessin erected, in the latter part of the 17th century, a palace, by the orders of Charles XI. One month after the death of that monarch, (which occurred the 25th of April, 1697,) it was reduced to ashes. The younger Tessin, who inherited his father's genius, made the plan of a second and still greater one. But many difficulties retarded the enter-

prize. At length, after twenty years had elapsed from the epoch of its commencement, it ~~was finished~~, (in 1755,) and thenceforth became the abode of the royal family.

The interior of the palace is well, but not gorgeously, furnished. The king occupies an entire story in one wing. The queen has her suite of apartments in the same wing or side. The crown prince has his apartments in the eastern side. The rest of the palace is occupied with the archives of the kingdom, various public bureaus; and, we believe, the several Orders of the State—those of the Seraphim, Polar-Star, the Sword, and Gustavus Wasa—have their meetings here also. In the apartments occupied by the royal family, are some exquisite specimens of painting and sculpture; but their number is not great. These apartments are generally to be seen, during those seasons of the year when the royal family are not particularly occupied, at about three or four o'clock in the afternoon. It is at that hour that they usually go out to take a drive.

In a small room, in the upper part of this palace, are many curious relics of the distinguished men of Sweden, such as clothes worn by them on grand occasions. Here is the hat worn by Charles XII., when he received his death-wound; the shirt worn by Gustavus Adolphus, at the fatal battle of Lützen; the masquerade dress which Gustavus III. wore when he was assassinated; and some banners and trophies. Among the collection of arms which one sees here, is the sword which Charles XII. wore when he defied the Turks, at Bender. It is such a one as few men of our times could wield; it bears this strange inscription—strange, to be used by such a man: "*Deo soli Gloria*"—to God only be the glory.

The church of St. Nicholas, hard by the palace, is a fine large church, which dates from the thirteenth or fourteenth century, and has been often renewed. It is here

that the sovereigns of Sweden are crowned. Near to this church is the Bourse, or Exchange, which is a large building, and convenient for the purpose for which it was erected.

Passing the bridge, which is before the north front of the palace, we come, at the end of it, to the fine Place, of which we have already spoken, in the centre of which there is a noble bronze equestrian statue of Gustavus Adolphus, cast after a model made by a Frenchman of the name of Archenêque. The great monarch, without a hat, looks boldly towards the palace. It is certainly one of the noblest specimens of the art which we have ever seen. On the base, or pedestal, on which this statue rests, are medallion profiles, in bas-relief, of the great generals of this illustrious prince.

On the western side of this Place, stands what is called the Palace of the Crown Prince. It is a large, but rather plain-looking building. Immediately opposite to it, on the east side of the square, stands the Opera House which Gustavus III. erected, and in which he was assassinated, on the night of the 16th of March, 1792. The houses on the third, or northern side, belong to private persons.

To the eastward of this Place, and immediately on the other side of the Opera House, there is a large public Place, called the King's Garden. It is an open piece of ground, of the extent of several acres, bordered by trees. It resembles a parade-ground, rather than a garden. In the midst of it, stands a bronze statue of Charles XIII., which was cast at Paris, in 1821, after a model made by Sergel.

In this part of the city, which is called Norrmalm, stands the Royal Academy of Science, which is a very convenient and fine-looking building. There is here an excellent collection of minerals, specimens in natural history, &c. ; and all in the best order.

Still further to the north, and on the highest point of land in this direction, stands the Observatory, which has an admirable position, is well supplied with instruments, and is kept in a good condition.

The next day after our arrival, we called on Mr. Von Hartmannsdorff, Baron Berzelius, and other persons of distinction. The first-named gentleman may be considered, at this time—though not in office—the prime counsellor of the king; and is the very able leader of the government-party in the House of Nobles. He is also President of the Swedish Temperance Society.

Baron Berzelius is well known, by reputation, to scientific men throughout the world. He is, without doubt, the first chemist now in existence. And yet he is not a very old man—appearing little more than fifty years of age, though he is probably more than sixty. He seems to enjoy fine health, and most cheerful spirits. He lives in the building in which the Society of the Royal Academy of Science holds its meetings, and in which they have placed their collections of objects of nature and art. At his rooms, in this seat of knowledge, the Baron receives, with great affability, all who call upon him, and is particularly attentive to strangers. He made many inquiries respecting his friend and correspondent, our own distinguished countryman, Professor Silliman, of Yale College, and spoke in the highest terms of his talents, his attainments, and the valuable Journal which he has so long and so ably conducted.

Baron Berzelius is not a rich man, far from it. He lives in great simplicity, on a very moderate income, for so distinguished a man, derived partly from a pension which he now receives from the government, partly from some offices which he holds in connection with the Academy, and partly from the sale of his great work on chemistry, which is now complete in ten octavo volumes. He told

us, that his time is now almost wholly employed in revising and still further improving this work for a future edition, as he is desirous that it should keep pace with the new discoveries and improvements which the science is making. A few years ago he was created a baron by his majesty, the king of Sweden, and as such he is entitled to a seat in the house of nobles. But he seldom, if ever, attends, preferring to devote his time to science, which has for him far greater attractions than the arena of political strife.

On the third day after our arrival we visited the several houses of the Diet or Parliament of Sweden, which is now in session, and has been since the first of this year. This body (called in Swedish *Rikets Ständer*) meets by law once in five years, at such time in the year as the last preceding Diet may have determined. Its regular session, (called *Lagtima*) as prescribed by the constitution, is for three months, although it may continue as long afterwards as the public business requires, by a special ordinance of the king. Extraordinary meetings or sessions of the Diet (called *Urtima*) may also be convoked by the king, when, in his opinion, the public good demands it.

The Swedish Diet consists of four houses or branches, which meet in separate halls for the transaction of business. They are 1. The House of Nobles, composed of the heads of noble families; they meet in a house of their own, called the *Riddarhuset*, and of which we have already spoken. 2. The House of the Clergy. 3. The House of the Burgesses, or the representatives of the 83 cities and towns of the kingdom. 4. The House of the Peasants or farmers, the representatives of the farming population. The object of this form of the organization of the Diet is to secure a just representation of all the classes and interests of the kingdom.

It has been said by some writers that Gustavus Wasa was the author of the Swedish Parliament. But this is not

correct. The fact is that no one knows when it was, precisely, that the people of Sweden began to send representatives or delegates of the different classes of the nation to a common diet. In very ancient times, the people met in one great assembly, and discussed all questions touching the public weal in a vast meeting in the open air. In these national assemblies all classes had a right to appear, and the peasants had the same privilege of speaking as the nobles, or the inhabitants of the boroughs. But when a representative form was substituted for the general or democratic meeting, is not known. Like that remarkable thing, called the British Constitution, its origin is lost in the dim obscurity of antiquity, "whereunto the memory of man runneth not."

The Houses of Clergy, of the Burgesses, and of the Peasants, meet in separate Halls in a plain and no way remarkable building, which stands on the small island called Riddarholm, and just in the rear of the Riddarholm church. We began our visit to the Houses of the Diet by taking them in the order in which they rank, from the lowest to the highest: and commenced with the House of Peasants, or the *Bonde Stådet*. This body meets in a long and rather narrow hall, which has a gallery over one end for spectators, that will hold about sixty persons. The speaker (who is appointed at the commencement of each session by the King) occupies a slightly elevated platform, and has a table covered with books of Statutes before him. The members occupy benches on his right and left; whilst there is a door immediately in front of him, in the opposite side of the hall. The members usually speak from the places which they occupy. The number of members in this House is, at this Diet, one hundred and thirteen. But they sometimes muster as much as one hundred and forty, which we believe is about the entire number which the law requires. These members

are elected by districts, and each district must be represented or pay a considerable fine. But there is nothing to prevent two districts from electing the same man to represent them, and this is often done from motives of economy; for the representatives are paid by the districts which they represent. On this account, there is not an entire uniformity in the wages which the members of this House receive, for some districts pay more and some less, according as they can arrange the matter between themselves and their representatives. But the average pay of the members of this House is about four and a half riksdaler riksgålds, (which is about a dollar twelve and a half cents of our money) per day, together with an allowance for traveling expenses in coming to the Diet and returning from it.

This House of Peasants resembles what we may suppose a similar assembly of our plainest farmers would be. Their dress is very much the same that our farmers wear on public occasions. A few, however, have the costume which prevails among the peasants of their native districts. For instance, one most worthy member for the province of Skåne, or Scania as it is often called, in the southern extremity of the kingdom, whose acquaintance we have made, wears small-clothes of deer-skin, white woollen stockings with red garters, and large heavy shoes. His coat is a loose round-about of blue cloth, and he resembles, for all the world, a very worthy Scotchman who threshed wheat for the neighborhood in which we were born, in Western Pennsylvania. Another, a member from Dalecarlia, wears the costume of his country—a broad-brimmed hat with a red string, and other ornaments of the same color around the crown of it; a red vest studded with bullet-buttons, and a loose round-about coat without buttons, but fastened with hooks and eyes, together with a belt or sash around the waist, small-clothes of cloth, white stockings, and shoes with goodly buckles. His hair is so long, that it comes down almost to his shoulders, and is

constantly falling over his eyes. But there are few of the members of this House who have any particular costume. They are plain, sensible looking men, and we are told that their addresses are often remarkable for sound reason and strong good sense, clothed in better language than one would expect to hear from men who have not had time to improve very much the limited education which they received in their youth. In the present Diet, in which, as a general thing, the ministers of the king are left in a minority on almost every question, no House is more decided than that of the peasants in favor of what are called the rights of the people. In the opposition, the prominent man is Hans Janson, who is every way an extraordinary man. His opponent, and the chief defender of the government, is Nils Strindlund, a man possessing a mind of no common calibre.

There is one peculiarity in the organization of this House which is very remarkable, and which we are not sure might not be advantageously introduced into some of our own legislatures; it is that of having a legal adviser, under oath, who sits at the speaker's right hand, and keeps the House from adopting any measure which would be unconstitutional or illegal. This gentleman is a Mr. Cassell, a most worthy and able lawyer. He has no vote on any question, as he is not a member of the House, nor does he speak on any question except to give the legal information which is needed. He is a most amiable man, and seems to be as much at home there, and to enjoy himself as well as, if he were sitting at the bar, surrounded by a coterie of his fellow-lawyers, and relaxing a little from severer labors by passing a good-natured joke or anecdote. He is,—and deservedly so, we believe,—universally beloved by the members of the House.

In the same story is the House of the Burgesses, whilst that of the Clergy and the Hall of the Committee of Finance

are in the story below. We visited the Burgesses first. Their hall is very conveniently arranged. The number of members in this House, at this Diet, is sixty. - But the number would be much larger in a full representation. To this house the city of Stockholm sends 10 members; Gottenburg 3, Norrköping 2, and all the remaining cities and boroughs one from each. They are paid such a sum per day as their constituencies choose to give them; a legal ratio also exists. Those from Stockholm and Gottenburg, we believe, receive 10 Riksdaler Banco, or about \$3.75. of our money. But the average pay of the members is about one dollar and a half of American currency, or 6 Riksdaler riksgäld. The most prominent member of this House, who is also the leader of the opposition, is Mr. Thor Petre. Mr. Wörn is also a distinguished member of the same party; whilst our friend, Mr. Commerce-råd* Wyk of Gottenburg is one of the most influential of the government party. The Swedish name for this branch of the Diet is Borgare Ståndet, which is equivalent to the title of House of the Burgesses.

We next descended to the Preste Ståndet or House of the Clergy. This house is, at this Diet, composed of 1 Archbishop, 11 Bishops, 43 Pastors, 1 Co-pastor, 1 Professor from each of the two universities of Upsala and Lund, and two members of the Academy of Sciences, in all 60. There is probably no branch of the Diet which pursues a course more wise and steadfast than this House does. It is the balance wheel or regulator of this complex machine. Whilst it partakes very largely of the popular spirit, it sympathizes sufficiently with the government to give it a steady and judicious action. It is also an enlightened body. The distinguished Archbishop of Upsala, the Primate of the kingdom, the good Dr. Win-

* The title of *Commerce-råd* is one of honor, which is conferred by the king on distinguished merchants.

gård, presides over this body. Its meetings are opened daily by the singing of a hymn and prayer. There are many able men in this house, among whom the Rev. Dr. Thomander, Professor of Theology in the University of Lund, and Geijer, Professor of History in that of Upsala, hold a high place. The Bishops and the members from Stockholm receive no pay as members of this House. But the other members receive on an average 5 Riksdaler riksgålds, or \$1 25 of our money, per day, as their wages. The pastors who are members of the Clerical House are appointed by the votes of the working clergy, who are pastors of the 12 Dioceses, into which the churches of the kingdom are divided. Each Diocese sends a certain member, and pays his wages and traveling expenses.

And, finally, we visited the House of Nobles. This branch of the Swedish Diet meets in its own house, or palace, as we have already stated. The exterior of the building is imposing. The hall in which they meet is a large square room of lofty height, whose walls are covered with the coats of arms of the noble families which have a right to be represented there by their head or chief. These coats of arms are painted on sheets of copper or iron, about 14 inches long and 10 wide, which are so numerous as to cover every portion of the walls from the floor up to the ceiling, leaving absolutely no place that we could see unoccupied. We cannot imagine how they have been able to find a sufficient variety of emblematic devices to enable each noble family to have its appropriate heraldry.

This House is called the House of the *Ridderskapet och Adeln*, (the heads of the Nobles and Honorables), consisting of *Gretvar* (Counts) *Baroner* (Barons) and *Adelsmän* (or nobles without any particular title). The number of Counts who have a right to a seat in the House

of Nobles (Riddarhus) is 79, of Barons 195, and of Nobles without particular title 889, in all 1163. The number present at this Diet is : Counts 60, Barons 137, Adelsmän 485 : in all 682. But the number in daily attendance fluctuates, so that it is impossible to speak of it with entire decision. We give the number as it is this month. The members of this House receive no pay. They sit on benches, covered with blue or black cloth, without support for the back, and without tables in front ; and as the members generally wear their hats, and many are standing up in groups whilst the rest are sitting, the whole scene is not unlike a meeting in a Bourse or Exchange.

The debates in this House are often not a little stormy. The government is at present in a minority here. The leaders in the opposition party are Counts C. H. Ankernward and Horn, Baron Spengporten, and the Hon. Captain Von Troil. The leaders of the government party are Counts A. Von Hartmannsdorff and G. Lövenhjelm, General Lefrén, and Baron Boje.

The entire number of the members of the present Diet is : of noblemen 682, clergy 60, burgesses 60, peasants 113—total, 915. What proportion of these 915 members hold offices of some kind or other in connection with the government, we have not been able to ascertain ; but in the Diet of 1828, there were in all 718 members, of whom 492 were nobles, (all, except 17, were holding commissions, civil or military) 57 clergy, 47 burghers, and 122 peasants or yeomen. Of the entire number of 718, no fewer than 554 were more or less dependent on the government ; a fact which shows the extent of official influence upon liberty under the constitution of Sweden. As we have already stated, those members who receive a daily pay for their attendance (the peasants, the burgesses and the clergy—excepting the archbishop, bishops, and the

pastors of Stockholm)—are paid by their immediate constituencies, and not by the general government or state.

On all questions the Diet votes by Houses, each House having one vote. On constitutional questions there must be a unanimous vote to render any law valid. In other cases a majority, that is, three Houses, are requisite to pass a law. When, as often happens, two Houses vote one way and two an opposite way, so that there is a tie, the measure falls to the ground; or if a financial one, which must be acted on, the question is referred to the committee on finance, which consists of 24 members, 6 from each House. To this standing committee of 24 members, twelve members more are added from each House, making then a grand committee, or what is called the *Increased Committee*, of 72 members. That committee reconsiders the question on which the Diet was equally divided, and their vote, given individually, is decisive; excepting that in all cases the signature of the king is necessary to the final passing of any law.

There is a committee, composed of an equal number from each House, which is appointed at the opening of every Diet, and is charged with the preliminary consideration of every proposed modification of the constitution. There are also several other committees.

When the king opens or dissolves the Diet, they all meet in a large hall in the palace for that purpose.

There is unquestionably a very considerable amount of talent in this Diet, as we learn from all quarters. But from the very nature of the organization of this body, business must make very slow progress. Besides, it is a great evil that the members of all the houses speak so much; in this respect they are almost equal to the members of our Congress and of most of our state legislatures. Every body wishes to speak, and it matters not how often the same arguments have been repeated, they must be repeated once

more if any one chooses to do it. And as there is no application of the previous question, as with us, nor even any rule forbidding a member to speak twice on the same question, there is almost no end to speech-making. In consequence of this, the session of the Diet ordinarily continues a long time: the last one was prolonged for nearly a year and a half, and the present one bids fair to continue to the end of the year, and perhaps far longer. This is a great evil; indeed, it is evidently time that this clumsy machine of legislation should be reformed and simplified, and adapted to the business and the wants of the age. Such a reform is greatly desired by the nation. When it was invented it was the best thing of the kind that the world knew any thing of; but it is now too unwieldy and ancient, and like many other old things, it is "ready to vanish away."

CHAPTER XI.

MORAL AND RELIGIOUS STATE OF SWEDEN.

Want of a sufficient number of churches in Stockholm—Some statistics on this subject—English chapel, and the Rev. Mr. Scott's labors in Sweden—Mr. Owen—Sabbath better observed at Stockholm than at Copenhagen and Hamburg—Mr. Laing's statement in regard to crimes in Sweden—Appalling—Fully confirmed by the official statement of Count Rosenblad—A summary of that statement—Causes which have led to the great prevalence of crime in Sweden—Those which Mr. Laing indicates—All of them real and potent—Other causes stated—And their operation explained—Use of brandy wide spread, and effective of much crime—Necessity for an evangelical ministry to secure a high state of morality in any country—RELIGION: Toleration not allowed except to foreigners—The laws forbid schism—Roman Catholics—Jews—The number of both—Church establishment of Sweden—Number of the ministry—Expense of the church establishment—Expensive gifts—A fact related by Mr. Læstadius—The absurdity of some of Mr. Laing's statements—Spiritual power of the pastors—Character of the Swedish liturgy and psalmody—Swedenborgianism—Extensive parishes—Church Fairs—Laplanders—Progress of truth in Sweden—Bible and Tract Societies—Progress of the Temperance cause glorious—Crown Prince, the patron of the National Temperance Society.

It is astonishing to find only eleven national or parish churches in this city, whose population is fully 80,000 souls. It is true that these churches are large; but if they were all filled as completely as possible, they could not contain one half of the population which is of an age to attend church; and if we add to the eleven parish churches, the chapels which are in the hospitals and other charitable institutions, still the provision which is made for the native Swedish population is very inadequate. We have been often told—and it is one of the most frequently repeated arguments of the advocates of the union of the church and the state,—that the aid of the government is needed to erect and support churches, and that without

this aid, adequate provision will not be made for the religious instruction of the people. But this argument has little force, if we may judge from what we have seen on this tour, which has been made wholly through Protestant countries, in which the union of church and state every where exists. The churches of Hamburg, Copenhagen, Gottenburg and Stockholm, will not accommodate one half of the people in those cities, who have arrived at an age when they might and ought to go to church. And yet with this fact staring them in the face, the authorities of some of these cities would imprison a man who should attempt to hold an independent worship, in his own house or elsewhere, and thus try to benefit some few of those for whom there is not room in the national churches, or who may prefer not to attend them.

In what we have just said in relation to the want of church accommodation,—as it is termed in England,—in this city, the reader will have remarked that we have spoken of the want of churches in sufficient number for the Swedish population. As regards the foreign population of this city, it would seem to be better provided for than the native; for we find here an English chapel, a French Protestant chapel, a German Lutheran church, a Reformed Dutch church, a Finnish church, a Greek or Russian chapel, a Roman Catholic church or chapel, and a Jewish Synagogue. These places of worship are very small, with one or two exceptions, but they are quite large enough to accommodate those for whom they were established. But it is very different in relation to the Swedish churches properly so called. If they were crowded, they could not contain more than half the Swedish population of the city who ought to attend the sanctuaries of the living God. There is not a city in the United States,—except, perhaps, New Orleans,—which is not far better supplied with church accommodation.

As in the other large towns of Sweden, there are several pastors or preachers attached to each church in Stockholm. One of these is generally the *Pastor*, and the others co-ministers and assistants. We found nothing like Sunday schools, or large Bible classes, in any of the churches into which we looked. Sunday schools do exist in Sweden, but they are very secular in their character, and their number is not great. Sunday schools of the character of ours, and conducted on the plan on which ours are conducted, are nearly unknown in Sweden.

Besides the national or Swedish places of worship, to which we have alluded, there is a small congregation of the United Brethren, who worship in an apartment of a private house. As to the Roman Catholic church, (which has now a place of worship), the Greek church, (connected with the Russian embassy), and all the other foreign churches or chapels, they are wholly inconsiderable as it regards the number of the people for whom they were intended or who frequent them. The English chapel is important on other accounts than merely the service for the handful of English and Americans, who either reside here or visit this city.

The preacher in that chapel is the Rev. George Scott, who has been laboring here nearly ten years. This excellent and zealous servant of God not only preaches in the morning, to as many persons who speak the English as he can induce to come and hear him, but he also preaches to a large congregation of Swedes at five o'clock in the afternoon. At this service the chapel, where he has long preached, is usually crowded to overflowing. He has, therefore, through the help which he has received from friends in England, built a new chapel, which is almost completed, and which will hold most comfortably a congregation of more than twelve hundred persons. Mr. Scott is a member of the denomination of Christians who are called Wes-

layan Methodists, but is truly liberal in his views. He speaks the Swedish language with great perfection. And by his prudence, as well as his zeal, he has succeeded in rendering himself both acceptable and useful. His activity in the Missionary, Bible, Tract, Infant School and Temperance causes, has rendered his residence in Sweden a blessing to the country.*

And we cannot omit stating that Mr. Owen, an English gentleman, who has long resided in Stockholm, and who introduced steam-boats into the country, and at first employed many English workmen, deserves great credit for his earnest desires to promote the religious interests of those whom he employed. This led him to bring out an English preacher, at first almost wholly at his own expense, and to do much ever since to sustain him. It has fallen to the lot of few individual foreigners to do for a whole country what Mr. O. has done for Sweden, as the introducer of the steam-engine, the temperance reform, and the missionary enterprise to which reference is here made.

A Swedish nobleman, Count De Geer, also, most liberally, for fourteen years, gave, without the slightest recompense, the use of a house for a chapel. We mention these things as a thousand times more important than many which we have to record, and as exhibiting an example of goodness and

* Since the above paragraph was written, Mr. Scott's church, there spoken of, has been completed and dedicated to the service of God. And although when crowded it will hold 1,400 or 1,500 people it is found already to be too small for the Swedish service. With a view to relieve his church from the debt which remained due for its construction, Mr. S. recently visited this country, as is known to many of those into whose hands this book will probably fall, and succeeded in awaking a very great degree of interest, not only in behalf of the particular and important enterprise in which he is engaged, but also of Sweden as a country, and the Swedes as a people.

benevolence worthy of universal imitation. We officiated, with great pleasure, for Mr. Scott in the morning, and heard him preach to his Swedish congregation in the afternoon. And though we could not understand much that was said, we were greatly delighted to see the deep interest manifested by some five hundred people, or more, in hearing the word of eternal life faithfully preached to them.

The shops are very generally closed in this city on the Sabbath, and the day is externally better observed, we should judge, than it is in Copenhagen or Hamburg.

A good deal of attention has been lately called to the moral state of Sweden, as compared with that of other countries, by some statements which Mr. Laing has made in his late work on this country. It has been very generally believed hitherto, that the population of Sweden is one of the most moral in Europe, and, indeed, in the entire world. Dr. Clarke, and subsequent travelers, had extolled to the skies the frugality, the honesty, the temperance, the general virtue of this people. According to their accounts, there was but little crime of any kind in this country, especially among the rural population. But whatever may have been the state of things forty years ago, when Dr. Clarke visited Sweden, Mr. Laing undertakes to show that in few countries—or rather in none—is there so much crime of one form or another, in proportion to the population. And if his statistical facts be correctly set down, it is hard to escape from the conclusions which he draws from them. We give a few extracts from his book on this point.

“According to the official returns published in the Swedish State Gazette, in March, 1837, the number of persons prosecuted for criminal offences before all the Swedish courts in the year 1835, was 26,275, of which 21,262 were convicted, 4,915 acquitted, and 98 re-

remained under examination. In 1835, the total population of Sweden was 2,983,144 individuals. In that year, (1835), therefore, 1 person in every 114 of the whole nation had been accused, and 1 in every 140 persons convicted of some criminal offence. By the same official returns, it appears that in the five years from 1830 to 1834 inclusive, 1 person in every 49 of the inhabitants of the towns, and 1 in every 176 of the rural population, had, on an average, been punished each year for criminal offences. In 1836, the number of persons tried for criminal offences in all the courts of the kingdom was 26,925, of whom 22,292 were condemned, 3,688 acquitted, and 945 under trial or committal. The criminal lists of that year are stated to be unusually light, yet they give a result of 1 person in every 112 $\frac{1}{2}$ of the whole population accused, and 1 in about every 134 convicted, of criminal offence; and taking the population of the towns and the rural population separately, 1 person of every 46 individuals of the former, and 1 in every 174 of the latter, were convicted in the year 1836, of criminal offence. There is no rebellion in the land, nor resistance to obnoxious laws, as in Ireland to the tithe-laws; nor are artificial offences created to any great extent by iniquitous legislation, as with us, by the game-laws and excise-laws. They are all offences involving moral delinquency greater than the simple breach of a regulation, or a conventional law of the State. Among the crimes in the rural population, there were 28 cases of murder, 10 of child murder, 4 of poisoning, 13 of bestiality, 9 of robbery with violence; and this rural population is only 2,735,487 individuals; and as appears by the official returns, the criminality among them is only about one-fourth of that of the town population of Sweden."

Mr. Laing, having shown as he supposes, that in 1836, 1 person in every 112 $\frac{1}{2}$ of the population of Sweden was

accused, and 1 in every 134 convicted; and in 1837, 1 person in every 114 of the whole population accused, and 1 in every 140 convicted of some criminal offence, compares this state of crime in Sweden with that of other nations. In Norway, in 1835, 1 person in every 457 of the whole population was accused, and 1 in every 662 was convicted, and really but 1 in every 1,402 of any criminal offence. In Denmark, in the same year, the persons accused were as 1 out of 678, and the convicted as 1 in every 943 of the entire population. In Scotland, in 1836, the accused were as 1 out of 809, and the convicted as one in 1,099 of the whole population. In England and Wales, in 1831, the accused were as 1 out of 707, and the convicted as 1 of 1,005, of the whole population. In London, in 1834, the accused were as 1 in 540 of the population; whilst in Sweden it is 1 in every 134 of the rural population, and 1 in 46 of the town population. In Ireland, in 1834, the accused or committed, were as one person out of 371.5 of the population, and the convicted as 1 in every 557. These results are certainly very extraordinary.

As to births of illegitimate children in Stockholm, compared with those which are legitimate, Mr. Laing comes to the conclusion that they are as 1 to 2.3; and in the entire kingdom as 1 to 14.6. But, subtracting the great number which is found in the cities, he is of opinion that the rural population of Sweden is not worse, in this respect, than the rural population of England; that is to say, there is 1 illegitimate birth to 19 legitimate. This is a summary of Mr. Laing's statements on these points.*

* Mr. Laing is wrong, decidedly, in supposing that Stockholm is worse than Paris, as it relates to the number of illegitimate children which are born in it. Instead of the proportion between illegitimate and legitimate births being only 1 to 5, in Paris, it is nearly 1 to 14.

As we feel a good deal of interest in the question which Mr. Laing has excited, we have procured, through the intervention of a friend, very full extracts from the official report of his excellency, Count Rosenblad, (the then minister of the Justiciary,) for the year 1837, which is one of the two years which Mr. Laing has selected. These extracts are too long to be inserted entire. We will give, therefore, the substance of them. In order to do so, we would premise, that crimes in Sweden are arranged in three classes:—

The first class comprehends: Blasphemy, murder, arson, burglary and highway robbery, infanticide, culpable occasioning of the death of a child without murderous intent, poisoning, bestiality, bigamy, keeping a house of ill-fame, criminal intercourse between cousins, incest.

The second class comprehends: Disturbance of public worship and ridiculing the same, perjury, offences against parents, assault and battery, offence against employers, strife between husband and wife, attempted suicide, forgery of other documents than bank-notes, manslaughter and homicide per infortunium, robbery

Mr. Laing is perfectly correct in what he says respecting the virtual inducements which law and custom hold out, at Stockholm, to unlawful sexual intercourse. For instance, there is a large Foundling Hospital, which receives all the children that are presented, without the slightest inquiry. And for the sum of about \$25, the maintenance of a child can be secured for years. This is the law on the subject, and a worse one could hardly be devised. All legal, or rather municipal provision for the maintenance of illegitimate children, is, *pro tanto*, an encouragement of the vice of licentiousness. Now for the custom: Few ladies of any rank, in Stockholm, nurse their own children. A wet-nurse must therefore be hired, for two years, at a high price, who will live in the family, and have nothing to do but to take care of the child entrusted to her. This is the best situation which a hired woman can have in this city. Is it wonderful that illegitimacy should greatly prevail under such circumstances, to say nothing of other and very powerful causes?

of churches, larceny for the third time, larceny for the second offence, larceny for the first offence, petty larceny.

The third class comprehends: Offences against navigation and custom-house laws, offences against laws respecting the distillation and vending of ardent spirits, depredations on forests, drunkenness, fighting, bastardy, and offences expiable by fines, such as nuisances, &c.

Such is the classification of crime which still exists in Sweden. And we must say, that the very exhibition of it ought to be a sufficient argument for a revision and thorough amendment of the penal code of the kingdom. Both the number and the nature of the crimes placed in the first class, perfectly amaze us. We live in the nineteenth century, and it will not do to punish with death the crimes therein enumerated, except that of murder, and arson with intent to murder. Blasphemy is a great sin, but is it wise to punish it with death? And why should cousins be forbidden to marry each other? Much might be said against the arrangement of the second class. And, as a general remark, we would say, that, from all we can learn, the punishments in Sweden greatly exceed the demerit of the crimes committed. Who would ever think of punishing the offence of ridiculing or disturbing public worship, with imprisonment for life, or even for a year, or the fourth part of that time? A fine of a few dollars, or an imprisonment of a few days, would be reckoned punishment enough. Nothing is gained by excessive severity.

According to the report of his excellency, Count Rosenblad, the number of accusations for crimes of the first class, was, in 1837, in the country population, (which amounted to 2,735,487,) 194; of whom 95 were convicted, 85 acquitted, and 14 remained under examination. In the towns, (whose population was that year about 290,000,) the number accused of crimes of the first class was 23;

of whom 14 were convicted, 4 acquitted, and 5 not decided. So that, in the rural population of the kingdom, the persons convicted of crimes in this category were as 1 to nearly 28,794 ; and in the town population, the number of the convicted was as 1 to 20,714. The murders (including 18 cases of infanticide,) committed in the kingdom that year, were 46, or 1 to 65,771 of the population ; whilst the suicides were 180.

It is remarkable, that the greatest number of crimes of the first class consisted of murder ; and adultery, bestiality, and burglary, ranked next in order.

As to crimes of the second class, the accused in the rural population were 2,555 ; of whom 2,049 were convicted, 492 acquitted, and 14 whose cases were not decided. In the town population, the accused were 1,869 ; of whom 1,372 were condemned, 495 acquitted, and 2 whose cases were not decided. So that, in the rural population, the number of persons convicted of crimes of the second class, was as 1 to 1,335 ; and in the town population, as 1 to 211. It is remarkable, that of the crimes charged under this second class, the whole of which were 3,189, the larcenies, arranged in four categories, were 2,456 ! The crimes next in number were, forgeries, 150 ; offences against parents, 120 ; strife between husband and wife, 113 ; manslaughter, 48 ; assault and battery, 44 ; ridiculing public worship, 28 ; &c.

As to crimes of the third class, the accused, in the rural population, were 16,759 ; of whom 14,137 were convicted, and 2,622 acquitted. Of the town population, the accused were 6,678 ; of whom 5,732 were convicted, and 946 acquitted. So that, in the rural population, the number of persons convicted of crimes of the third class, was as 1 to 193 $\frac{1}{2}$ of the entire population ; and in the town population, as 1 to 50 $\frac{1}{2}$.

The total amount of crime, in the year 1837, was as follows : of the country population, the persons accused were

19,508, or 1 to 140 of the population; and those who were convicted were 16,231, or 1 to 168.

Of the town population, the persons accused were 8,570, or 1 to 33½ of the population; and those who were convicted, 7,118, or 1 to 40½.

And of the entire population of the kingdom of Sweden, containing, in 1837, 3,025,487 souls, the number of persons accused of criminal offences was 28,078, or 1 to 107¾ of the entire population; and the number of the persons who were convicted of criminal offences was 23,399, or 1 to 129½ of the whole population.

As to illegitimate births, they were, in the country, in the proportion of 1 illegitimate to 19 legitimate; in the towns generally, as 1 to 5. In Stockholm, nearly as 1 to 1½, or 987 to 1,534.

It will be seen from this summary of the Official Report of Count Rosenblad for the year 1837, that the statement of Mr. Laing is fully sustained. Indeed, the state of things, according to this Official Report, was, in 1837, even worse than it was in the years 1835 and 1836, as exhibited by Mr. Laing, from the returns published in the State Gazette in March, 1837.

We will only add a few more particulars, which have been derived from the same Official Report of Count Rosenblad for the year 1837.

Number of persons imprisoned in Stockholm	
and other places,	12,811
Of these, 265 in Stockholm and 261 elsewhere,	
were imprisoned for debt.	
Prisoners in the fortifications,	
Condemned for life,	615
Do. do. certain periods,	646—1,261
Do. on Confession,	12
Do. in Houses of Correction—males,	1956
Do. do. do. females,	301—2,257
Total,	23,341

Distresses granted during the year 1837, . . .	107
Criminals condemned to death, . . .	15
Civil actions before the various courts, . . .	88,098
Bankruptcies (of which 921 were in the towns), . . .	1,405
Actions for debt, . . .	49,455

We have now gone through this exhibition of the crimes and other actionable offences, as made by the Official Report for the year 1837; and we must say that it is truly appalling. We doubt very much whether an equal amount of crime, accompanied by an equal amount of the spirit of litigation, can be found in any other nation of 3,000,000 inhabitants, or in an equal proportion in any other country. We are grieved to record it. But what can we do? Here are the official statements. Without doubt the penal laws of Sweden greatly need revision and amendment; but this does not diminish the amount of crime actually committed, nor furnish us with satisfactory reasons for its existence. What then are the causes of this very great degeneration in a nation which was for a long period reckoned one of the most moral of all the Protestant countries? This is a question which it is not easy to answer. The insulated situation of Sweden, its climate, and in general the homogeneousness of its population, are certainly favorable to national morality.

Mr. Laing assigns several causes which have operated to bring about this great degree of demoralization. 1. The great number of the privileged classes, comprehending not only the nobility and the members of the learned professions, but, in the shape of corporations and communities of trades, also the mass of the middling classes of society, and leaving exempt only the common laborers. This leads men to depend more upon artificial and adventitious honors and advantages, than on personal merit, for the respect of their fellow men. Consequently, the sense of the importance of personal character is undermined and destroyed. 2. Allied to this is the conferring of so many titles of honor, such as nominal councillors and chamber-

lains, and the medals of societies, &c., for actions and services which a consciousness of having done one's duty and the merited approbation of the public is the appropriate and best reward. 3. The influence of the example of a dissolute court, especially in the times of Gustavus III., and even later, (but not including the reign of his present majesty) which operated on a vain-glorious nobility and down through all ranks, leading to idleness, gaming, frivolity and general profligacy. 4. The political profligacy which marked the last part of the last century, and the first portion of the present, as displayed in the treacherous surrender of Finland on the part of those entrusted with its defence, the murder of Count Fersen, and other acts. 5. The Reformation did not thoroughly penetrate and transform the nation. It was political rather than truly religious. And whilst it removed a few ceremonies, and made some changes in doctrine, it gave nothing to take the place of the checks and restraints which the Romish priesthood exercises over the conscience (blinded and bigoted it may be) of their sect. And Mr. Laing supposes the population to be too sparse to be well reached by the pulpit or the press.

There is unquestionably a great deal of truth in these views. The five different causes which Mr. Laing has assigned are real and potent. But he has omitted others which, in our opinion, are more potent still. One of these is the degradation in which the vast mass of the agricultural population is held—we mean the whole of the agricultural and laboring people who are not owners of land or houses, and who must each have a patron, or sort of master, who is responsible to the government for the conduct of his client! When we first heard of this regulation as being in existence in Sweden, we absolutely could not believe it. But a small portion of the country-population are owners of either lands or houses. Such as are

owners of real property are the true *Bonde** or Peasant class, and have a right to vote, and are eligible to certain offices. But the overwhelming mass of the country people of Sweden are only laborers, hired in one way or another, by those who are proprietors of the soil. All such men, whether laboring in the country or in the city, must have a protection, in the shape of a written document, according to a form prescribed by law. This they must have from some proprietor, who is, therefore, their patron. Can anything be more degrading than to require a poor man to solicit some one to be his patron? It is a sort of slavery, and is utterly inconsistent with the noble feelings which every freeman ought to have of personal independence. It is bad enough to require every one to have a passport, even when he passes but a few miles from the place of his abode. But useless and embarrassing as this police requirement is, in such a country as Sweden, it is infinitely less degrading than this Roman patronage, which renders the poor man an humble, cringing dependant on the rich, or at least some one richer than himself. It is utterly destructive of every manly, independent, virtuous sentiment in the poor, and renders them and their families, the easy prey to the will and the passions of their superiors. This regulation operates to the destruction of personal liberty in many cases. If a poor man cannot find a patron—a thing which is not always very easy, inasmuch as there is a serious responsibility attached to this office,—he is liable to be thrown into prison as a vagabond. And in the case of those who have committed some criminal offence, and have passed through the prescribed period of confinement, it is obvious that this odious

The word *bonde*, we may here remark, denotes in both Danish and Swedish, one who owns or possesses land or other real property. It does not denote one who is or has been a bondsman, as some might be led at first sight of the word, to suppose.

requirement must be an almost insuperable barrier to his return to good habits. For who will be his patron when it is not yet certain how he will conduct himself? What a dreadful impediment does it throw in the way of the poor wretch who is placed in such circumstances! And this too, at a time when encouragement, instead of hinderance, is what he needs. Nor can necessity be pleaded, nor even the slightest utility, as a ground of defence of this law which verily more befits the 12th than the 19th century; for the ordinary police of the country is sufficient to protect society. It is enough for men to know that if they do well, they shall enjoy the happiness and protection which the law secures to them; but if they do badly, they must expect to be punished for it. The same law extends to all the working classes in towns, manufactories, &c.; in a word, to all the so-called dependent classes, or receivers of wages!

Mr. Laing states that at the close of the year 1836, there were 13,209 persons in the Swedish jails, besides 284 children living with their parents in these dreary abodes. He tells us that 547 of these persons were in prison for debt. But he does not tell us how many were there simply because they could not find a patron or sponsor, and yet the greater part of these 13,209 prisoners were in jail for no other reason. They had either been placed there as vagabonds, or they had been unable, at the expiration of the period of their confinement for some previous offence, to find a patron, and so were not permitted to return to society! It is most devoutly to be hoped that among the many reforms which Sweden may adopt, the abolition of this most pernicious and degrading vassalage will be one of the very first.

But there is still another and more powerful cause of this national degeneracy in Sweden to be mentioned, and that is the awful extent to which the use of ardent spirits as a

beverage prevails. The population of the country is probably at this day, about 3,125,000; it is certainly not more. It is not possible to ascertain with entire precision, the quantity of whisky which is annually made from potatoes and rye, and annually consumed. In 1829 it was estimated at 22,000,000 kans, or about 15,000,000 gallons. Col. Forsell and other friends of the Temperance cause have for the last four or five years estimated the quantity at 60,000,000 of kans, or something less than 40,000,000 of gallons; and for doing so they have been called slanderers of the country. But a committee appointed by the present Diet to inquire into the subject have found the state of things even worse than any one had feared. What an astounding fact! What a large quantity does even the estimate of Col. Forsell give as the portion, we will not say of each male adult, but actually of each male who has passed ten years of age! Alas! here is the evil. The drinking in Sweden has been, until recently, universal among the males of sufficient age, and it has been regular and steady. Brandy, as it is called, formed a constituent of at least three of the five meals which most Swedes are accustomed to take daily. And at some of these three meals, particularly dinner, in many cases,—perhaps in most cases,—one glass did not suffice, but two and sometimes even more, were necessary. Is it astonishing that a vast quantity should be drunk, even in a nation of only 3,000,000 of souls, in this manner? And let no one commit the mistake of thinking that this steady and hard drinking does not lead to much crime, because it is not exhibited in open downright drunkenness. It is just this steady, constantly exciting use of ardent spirits which renders men capable of committing crime and inclines them to do so. Real drunkenness incapacitates men from doing much mischief. The devil has bound such men hand and foot for the time being. But it is when a man has a glass, or two, or three, of the fiery liquid in him, that

he is fit to do the work which the devil would have him do. It is then that his lusts and his passions become inflamed, and he sees no danger resulting from their gratification. Mr. Laing does not seem disposed to estimate drunkenness as a very efficient cause of the immorality which exists in Sweden. But we judge very differently, and we believe that minute investigation would show that in almost all the murders and other great crimes, ardent spirits has been the chief, if not the sole cause.

But we come to the last cause of the existing depravation of morals in Sweden: which is the want of a thoroughly efficient presentation of the Gospel throughout the length and breadth of the land, and yet not for the want of a sufficiently numerous public ministry, nor for the want of human learning on the part of that ministry: No: the ministry of Sweden is numerous, talented, well-instructed, learned even. They have the reputation, and we have no doubt deservedly, of being moral in their lives, and most agreeable in their manners. But it is one of the evils of an established church, with its system of patronage more or less extensive, that it infallibly leads men to regard the ministry too much in the light of a secular employment, to be sought, if not solely, yet chiefly, as an honorable means of livelihood. This fact is illustrated to a great extent in England and every other Protestant country in Europe. The ministry of such men is not without its use, we admit. It is a great means of promoting civilization to have the people brought together, once a week, to hear a discourse, even though it may come far short of a just exhibition of the grand truths of the Gospel. Even the very act of their assembling at stated times, dressed in their best apparel, and prepared to give each other the kindly greeting, has a salutary effect. It is not so insignificant a means of civilization, as some may imagine, to have the people of

all classes trained by custom, or influenced by nobler considerations, to habits of personal cleanliness, and the occasional use of better clothes than ordinary. The man who neglects these good usages soon degenerates morally, and often rapidly. A western lawyer, of whom we had some knowledge in our younger days, once remarked, "that the man who wears habitually a dirty shirt, must feel that if he has not actually stolen a sheep, he is well nigh fit for the deed." There is much truth in this. But neither the assembling of the people in their best clothes, nor the preaching of a merely "moral" discourse, and the going through a round of services, however interesting in their nature when rightly performed, comes up to the full measure of a just exhibition of the Gospel. No : there must be the earnest and resistless persuasion, which nothing can inspire but a heart-felt sense of the infinite importance of a salvation, which can only be secured by sincere "repentance toward God and faith toward the Lord Jesus Christ." Here lies the true moral influence of the Gospel. It demands the services of the heart, of the regenerated heart. It contemplates men, all men, as lost, as ruined by the fall, as corrupt, and it brings help ; it brings a blood-bought pardon, and a renewing Spirit. Thus preached, and thus only, it exerts its full measure of salutary influence upon society. Let this be tried in Sweden every where, and it cannot be in vain. And let not one service in the country churches be reckoned sufficient. Or, if a second service on the Sabbath be not practicable, let the afternoon of the sacred day be devoted to Sabbath Schools for the youth, and Bible classes for the older persons, instead of allowing the greater part of the day to pass away in idleness, or be spent in meeting to drink, to dance, to dissipate by folly any good impressions which may have been felt in the former part of it. We make these remarks with all respect for the clergy of Sweden, whom we have so much reason to love. Many we know

are models of pastoral fidelity, and labor "in season, out of season," for the good of those for whom God has made them overseers. *O si sic omnes!* But let the full measure of the influence of the Gospel be tried in Sweden; let it be preached with that earnestness and power which its infinite value demands; let it be accompanied with all the other means for the religious instruction of the people which have been found so useful in other countries, and it will soon be seen and felt in all its transforming influence, upon the character of the people.

We see nothing in the situation of Sweden which need hinder, in a serious degree, the development and application of the resources of the Gospel. The population is sparse in many parts of the kingdom, but it is generally in groups, or neighborhoods, so that it is not impossible to collect them together, if a sufficient number of places of worship existed for them; and there are preachers enough to supply the entire population with the regular preaching of the Gospel, if they were rightly distributed. The churches are not, however, sufficiently numerous. In many places the old ones are not large. And what may seem incredible to some of our readers, there are no stoves or other means of warming the churches in any part of Sweden. We are assured of the astonishing fact, that there is probably not a single church in Sweden which is rendered warm and comfortable in winter by fire, unless we except that of the Rev. Mr. Scott. And this, in such a climate, and where fuel is abundant, is absolutely incomprehensible. How can people hear the Gospel profitably, or engage in the other exercises of the sanctuary, whilst shivering with cold?

Mr. Laing seems to think that the Swedish church has an advantage in having no schism or sect to resist. We think differently on this point also. If there was an active and zealous secession party; in other words, if there was a goodly number of churches independent of the State,

they would exert a good influence upon the churches of the Establishment. It is our opinion that an established church, in every country, needs the activity and zeal of Dissent to render it worth any thing. And we should prefer sailing on the agitated ocean, even although it be sometimes a little boisterous, to remaining stationary, or being only rocked by the swellings of a lifeless, waveless sea.

RELIGION. —The religion of Sweden, like that of the other portions of Scandinavia, is Protestant. There are not, probably, two thousand Roman Catholics in all Sweden. The few that are to be found in the kingdom are mostly at the capital. The Queen and Crown Princess, belonging to the Roman Catholic Church, have a chaplain, who performs service in a small chapel in the palace. He bears, we are happy to say, an excellent character; at least this has been the case in relation to the chaplain whose acquaintance we made when in Sweden in 1836, and we believe that he still remains there, in the same capacity. There is also a Roman Catholic chapel in Stockholm, for the benefit of those who belong to that church. Some recent attempts, on the part of the Roman Catholics, to proselyte, have made some difficulty. At any rate they are charged with making such attempts; and the very suspicion of such a thing is enough to arouse the Swedes, for they are opposed to all schism, or separation from the established church.

The Jews were formerly excluded from Sweden, and even now, we believe, they are permitted to reside only in certain cities. There are at present, it is supposed, some two or three thousand in the kingdom. The number has rapidly increased since the government gave them permission, a few years ago, to settle in Stockholm and pursue business. They have four synagogues now in Sweden; one at Stockholm, one at Gottenburg, one at Norrköping, and one at Carlsrona.

Whilst it is allowed to foreigners who reside in Sweden

or at least to those who live in the chief cities, to have their own worship, it is not permitted to the Swedes to join any other church than their own national communion, which is wholly Lutheran, as in Denmark and Norway.

The Swedish church has a metropolitan, or archbishop, eleven bishops,* and 3,193 clergy. The number of congregations is 2,490; viz. 1,147 country parishes, and 129 town charges, with 1,214 annexed chapels in the larger parishes.

The church establishment costs 1,780,393 banco dollars; viz. the ministers' salaries, 1,309,000, the assistants, or chaplains, 284,090, and the clerks, sextons, &c. of the churches, 186,814. This is the estimated sum which is raised by tithes. But a greater amount is also raised—how much, it is not easy to ascertain—from offerings at marriages, baptisms, funerals, and great festive occasions, such as Christmas and Easter. It was estimated, in a work written on this subject, some eight years ago, that the sum which Religion cost the people of Sweden annually, was not less than 3,669,800 dollars banco, or 1,376,175 dollars of our currency. The Swedish pastors receive many presents; and some of them are exceedingly heavy and oppressive, for they are viewed as due of right, and such is the force of custom, that they are almost always made. But none of these gifts, which custom has made it necessary to give, can be compared with those which they receive for attending funerals. The rich families of the capital and other large towns, often give one hundred dollars of our money for one funeral service. Many give fifty dollars, which would be reckoned a very moderate sum for those who are in good circumstances to give. In the country, the peasant gives a cow on such occasions.

* The episcopal sees are Lund, Gottenburg, Wexio, Calmar, Linköping, Skara, Carlstad, Wisby, Upsala, [seat of the archbishop and primate of the kingdom,] Westeraas, Strangnäs, and Hernösand.

Indeed, there is some law which requires this ; and sometimes this bears very heavily on the poor. Læstadius mentions, in his work, an instance of the only cow of a poor widow being demanded for the performance of the funeral rite for her husband. And he adds, that the minister's wife, who was a cousin of his own, taking pity on the poor widow, quietly sent her out to her husband's stable, or cow-house, to drive up one of his own fifty cows and present it to him ; which she did, without his detecting the cheat. There is a great need of reform in some of these matters, in order to place religion on a footing which will make it command the respect of men.

Mr. Laing, as usual, when calculating the clerical force of Sweden, musters quite an army. First he makes the number of all the clergy to be 3,193 ; next he adds 3,753 sextons or parish clerks, organists, and church servants ; and finally he adds to the preceding estimates, 763 schoolmasters, and so gets the sum "total of 7,709 males, whose wives and children amount to 15,114 persons, he says, making in all, 22,823 individuals, or 1 in every 126 of the whole population, living by teaching the Swedish people their religious and moral duties," just as if the 3,753 sextons, bell-ringers, &c., had anything to do, that deserves the name, with the teaching of the nation their moral and religious duties. He adds, there is an old proverb—"too many cooks spoil the broth." Aye, but here are 3,753 persons who are no cooks, and have nothing to do with the making of the broth. But seriously, what was the use of making such an estimate when he knew that these sextons, &c., receive mere pittance for their services about the churches, and that they depend mainly on their other avocations ? As to the expense of supporting churches and ministers, it is a very simple affair. If men are not willing to pay money for the promotion of religion, and by consequence, of morality, they must meet the alterna-

tive, and expect to pay for vice and crime. And that, perhaps, will be a burden quite as heavy.

The Swedish clergy are a very well educated body of men. They make their professional and philosophical studies at the universities of Upsala and Lund. Many of them are men of distinguished attainments. The present Primate, and several of the Bishops, such as Tegner and Franzen, are men of fine scholarship. The last-named two are celebrated as poets. The Rev. Dr. Thomander, of the University of Lund, is called the Chalmers of Sweden. Wieselgren is not only a most eloquent preacher, but also a fine writer, and author of several valuable works.

The form and discipline of the Swedish church are Episcopal. The doctrine, as we have said, is Lutheran. The organization of the church is very thorough, and its union with the State very intimate. According to old laws, which are still in existence, the pastor of a parish may compel every one who is under his charge, or is a member of his parish, to attend the public worship. No man can give testimony in a court, or accept any important office, unless it can be shown that he has taken the sacrament of the Lord's Supper within a year. To have made the First Communion is essential to getting any valuable employment; or entering any important or permanent station. A boy commonly is required to make his first communion before a master will take him as an apprentice.

The liturgy and psalmody of the Swedish church are excellent. And there is an increasing number, it is believed, of pious pastors, men who are faithful in laboring for the salvation of those to whom they are appointed to preach.

There is a considerable prevalence of the doctrines of Emmanuel Swedenborg,—whose father was a Swedish bishop, and the author of many excellent hymns,—through-

out the churches of this country. But there is no sect, no separate church organization, for that would not be allowed.

In some parts of the kingdom, and especially in the north, the parishes are very large. And in those instances, as in similar cases in Norway, the people come, at intervals of several weeks, to the church to hear the Gospel, to receive the Sacrament of the Supper, and to have their children baptized. In some places, they spend two or three days at the church, occupying the temporary houses which are erected around it for that purpose. In such cases, there is usually not a little buying and selling and exchanging of their goods and productions. In this way something like a fair takes place on the occasion. The want of proper religious opportunities must be a great privation in the valleys of those dreary regions of the North. And as to the Laplanders, although they are all baptized, they are, it is to be feared, nothing more, in most cases, than baptized heathen. At present, a good deal of interest is waking up in the hearts of some Christians in Sweden in behalf of these poor, benighted people, and as a result of this interest, six young men have lately gone up into Lapland to establish schools for the instruction of the children.

In concluding this chapter, we may say, that Truth bids fair to make progress in Sweden. Much good is doing by the dissemination of the Scriptures and religious Tracts and books. Great progress is also making in the Temperance cause, under the auspices of the good old king, and especially the Crown Prince, who may indeed be considered as at the head of it, inasmuch as he is the Patron of the National Society, and one of the best members of its Committee. This happy reformation is fairly and most auspiciously commenced in that country, and it bids fair to reach to its remotest limits in due time.

CHAPTER XII.

STOCKHOLM AND ITS ENVIRONS.

Hospitality and kindness of the people of Stockholm—The very site of the city contains much that ought to interest a stranger—Stockholm compared by some to Venice—The difference between them—Boats of Stockholm—Dalecarlians—Their good character—Signs over the shops—A great oversight committed by us—Life in a hotel—Swedish customs—The salutation after meals—The “brandy-table”—The Swedes a polite people—Are the French of the North—Even excel the French—The betrothing a formal affair in Sweden—Singular practice of admitting all the world to see those who have just been married—Absurd and wicked—Public buildings in Stockholm—The palace of the king always interesting as an object to behold—Apartments of the royal families contain some fine specimens of painting and sculpture—Royal picture gallery not good—The sculpture better—Royal library—Its contents—Luther's Bible—The Devil's Bible—Royal autographs—The king—His interesting and eventful life—His goodness, under God, made him king, not Napoleon—His course as King of Sweden—His present position—The Crown Prince and Crown Princess—Their interesting character—The environs—Excursion up Lake Mälär—Visit to Carlberg and Solna—New cemetery—Palace of Haga—The Djurgården—Country Palace of Rosendal—Deaf and Dumb Asylum.

No stranger, who possesses the ordinary means for making the acquaintance of interesting people in Stockholm, need pass his time heavily. The inhabitants of this city, of all classes, are remarkable for their hospitality. They are ever disposed, we are assured, to show all possible attention to strangers, who have the slightest claims upon their kindness. This has certainly been our experience, during both the visits which we have made to this place.

There is much in the city itself to interest an intelligent stranger, and especially one who is curious of knowing the diversities which are to be found in all countries, even

in those whose juxta-position is such as would seem, to a superficial observer, to render a difference, in almost any thing, utterly impossible. But to the close observer, who is ever ready to remark the slightest shades of variation, in language, in dress, in manner, in architecture, in modes of conducting business, &c., there is enough almost any where to occupy, or at least to amuse, for a few days.

The topographical position, if we may so speak, of Stockholm, makes it differ exceedingly from any other city in the world. It stands, as we have said, on seven islands, and the adjoining portions of the mainland. The insular part of it, which is both the most central and the most ancient, standing, as it does, in the midst of the waters of Lake Mälär, or rather, in the outlet of that lake, and the upper part of the bay into which it flows, has led some persons to compare it with Venice. But there is not much resemblance. In Venice, indeed, you find the waters forming many of the streets; but then these streets of water are small and narrow, excepting the Grand Canal, which divides the city into two almost equal parts. But in Stockholm, the waters are of very considerable width in almost every part of them, and merely surround and embosom the island-portions of the city, but do not divide them up into the small sections which one sees in Venice. Besides, the surface of Venice is a dead level; that of Stockholm—we speak now of the insular part—is scarcely any of it exactly level, and much of it is very far from it. The central island, or the Island of the City, on which the palace of the king stands, is much elevated, and the streets which run across it, go up one side and down the other, with quite a considerable ascent and descent; whilst those which run along on the sides of the hill, are like so many terraces rising one above another. The continental portions of the city are quite uneven, and rise gradually, on the north, but rapidly, on the south, as they

recede from the water. In fact, the southern portion is so high, that when you ascend to what is called the "Mount of Moses," which is on the upper verge of the brow of the hill, you feel that there is very little necessity for you to go still higher, and mount up to the top of the steeple or tower of St. Catherine, in order to obtain a fine view of the city. There is, therefore, much in the very site of this city to occupy one's attention for a day or two after arriving for the first time.

And, then, there is not a little to interest in the movements of the many small boats, which one sees along the banks of both the insular and the continental portions of the city. For, although there are some bridges which unite the islands to one another and to the mainland, yet their number is not great, and the use of boats is exceedingly common. For the merest trifle, one may pass across these little friths, and so save a deal of time and labor which would be consumed by going round by the bridges. It is the sight of these boats which is the chief circumstance in this city that reminds any one of Venice. For, most assuredly, the plain little boats of Stockholm are not gondolas, nor are the Dalecarlians who row them, the fine, olive-colored, and handsomely-formed gondoliers whom one sees in the fair "Queen of the Sea."

Nevertheless, these Dalecarlians form a proper subject for a passing consideration. They are rough in their exterior, and not generally very good-looking. But notwithstanding all this, Italy cannot furnish such people. They come down to Stockholm, from the distant interior, in order to find work. This fact demonstrates their industrious disposition as well as their laudable enterprise. They come down in two sets or companies, one in the fall and the other in the spring. Those who arrive in the spring come down to spend the summer, the men to find

employment in the gardens and such like work, the women to row the boats and take care of the ferries. Those who come down in the 'autumn are chiefly the men who come to cut wood, to take care of the stables, &c. The dress of the men is almost exactly that of the old Germans whom we sometimes see preserving the costume which they wore in their father-land. The women wear short gowns, short petticoats of some darkish color, red stockings, and shoes with the high heel under the centre of the foot instead of being where we place it, and bearing goodly sized buckles on the instep. A small close bonnet, if the weather be cool, or a sort of light sun-bonnet if it be warm, encloses the head. But what is far better, these poor, honest people, whose life is so laborious, are almost universally people of good character. Their rough "outward man" often conceals an "inward man" of no earthly stamp. They come from the most Christian part of all Sweden,—and from a part which is illustrious in glorious recollections. It is interesting to notice the signs which one sees in the streets, and which call the attention of the passers by to what articles are sold, or to what business is pursued there. In this respect, one sees a difference between Stockholm and Copenhagen and Hamburg. For whilst we see here the same sort of sign, for instance, to indicate a barber's shop (several brass plates or dishes strung along a short pole or beam) and the same signal over the wine shops and groggeries, (the painted bottles, and sometimes the little keg,) yet on the other hand, there are some things which are strange here, at least to us, such for instance as the hanging out of a piece of cotton cloth, and a handkerchief, and divers other articles from an elevated horizontal pole which reaches almost across the street, to indicate that all such commodities and a great many more are for sale in the store or shop underneath. The appearance of these streamers in all the busi-

ness streets cannot fail to arrest the eye of the stranger. And then, too, he cannot but take some interest in analyzing the various words which he reads on a sign, to see whether he can make out their meaning. And if he knows anything of the German, he will soon find himself up to the eyes in etymology, if not in syntax.

Such employments, we confess, sometimes occupied us, as we sat at the window of our hotel, tired with walking about, or when we were sauntering through the streets, just going wherever our eyes happened to lead us, whether it was to see a steam-boat arrive or depart, or to the market to bring some strawberries, and other fruits of the season, and still more, to see what sort of people were there.

By the way, the mention of the fact of our staying at a hotel in this city, reminds us of a sad oversight which we have committed in not having informed the reader, after the approved fashion of the most finished professional travelers from the old world who visit our shores, how we have lived at the various hotels which we have inhabited since we set out on this tour—how we found the parlors, how the kitchens; what the state of the bed-rooms, and what that of the beds; and above all, how we found things in the *salles à manger*, or dining-halls, if there be such things in these hyperborean regions, and what they contained that was eatable and drinkable, together with proper notices of the process by which the Scandinavians contrive to fill their internal life-preservers,—in other words, their stomachs. It has, indeed, been a shocking oversight in us, for which we can hardly account, and which we fear some of our readers will be unwilling, or if willing, unable, to pardon. But we do not see how we can mend the matter now. We have advanced so far both in our journey, and our book, that we feel that it is quite too late for us to enter upon so grave and diffi-

cult a subject. We are inclined to think that the reader must wait for a second edition of this our book, or for one on another part of the world, before he can obtain that important information. In the meanwhile, lest he should think that we are utterly destitute of all concern for his true interests and highest happiness, we will just give him this little foretaste of what he may expect. And here it is: Firstly, Secondly, and Thirdly, we found plenty of bread and butter, and cheese, and meats of all sorts, and vegetables in abundance, together with tea and coffee and chocolate, everywhere; and we were allowed to eat just such things as we chose to call for, in our room, or we went to the public table (table d'hôte) as most others did, or we went out and took our meals, particularly our dinners, at a restaurant, or eating-house—just as it best suited us. And we have found no difficulty not only in living, but even flourishing on it. Reader, art thou satisfied? If so, very well. Let this suffice for all that we have to say about eating and drinking—which if not exactly vulgar practices, it is very certain that it is vulgar enough to talk much about them.

Apropos of eating and drinking,—we have occasionally dined with some excellent, and (if we may say so without vanity,) even distinguished Swedish families of this city—don't be alarmed, reader, we are not going to say a word more about eating and drinking—and we have remarked some things which struck us as quite strange, but far from unpleasant. One of these is the manner in which the guests treat the gentleman and lady who give the entertainment. It is this: as soon as they have risen from the table and accompanied the ladies into the saloon or parlor, every gentleman approaches the lady of the house, who stands either in the middle of the parlor, or towards the upper end of it, and taking her hand, bows twice (which is the Swedish way of making that form or accom-

paniment of salutation), and says, tack, tack—which means thanks for your hospitality. And if he be a very intimate friend, he even kisses her hand. After that he shakes hands with the master of the house, repeats his “tack”, and shakes hands with all the rest of the company and bows to them. Where the company of guests is considerable, the scene reminds one of the changing of partners in a cotillion dance in which some eight or ten persons are engaged. Nor is this custom one which is used on extraordinary occasions only. It is one of every day’s practice in the Swedish families of every class of society. The husband shakes hands with his wife, bows to her, and says tack. The children come up, kiss her hand and say tack. And although this custom seemed strange to us at first, it soon wore another aspect. There is something very sweet in seeing men pay this homage to those whose hospitality they enjoy, and especially to the lady of the house, as the person whose anxiety and labor and kindness have been most severely taxed, it may be, on the occasion.

On our former visit, we also saw the “Brandy-table”—this, however, we do not put in the category of the things which pleased us in Swedish manners and customs—but on the present visit we did not see it in any of the houses in which we dined, either in Stockholm, or elsewhere in the kingdom. This brandy-table (or sup-table as the Swedes call it) was a sort of side-table which was set forth, covered with slices of bread and butter, dried salmon or beef, radishes, &c., together with a glass of brandy for each guest, and the bottle from which he might help himself if he wanted more. To this table the guests repaired some half hour or so before the dinner, for the purpose of sharpening the appetite rather than allaying it, by this brief antepast. With the exception of the brandy, we do not know that we have any quarrel

with the contents of it. This Brandy-table, however, was a great obstacle at the commencement of the Temperance Reformation in Sweden. But it is a matter of thanksgiving to God that the custom of setting brandy on this preliminary table, has received a death-blow, by the noble example which the Crown Prince and many distinguished men in the kingdom have recently resolved to set.

The Swedes are a truly polite people, taken as a nation. In this respect they excel all the northern nations of Europe, though the Norwegians and Danes are also polite people, and the former, especially, not far inferior to their relatives on the other side of the peninsula. The Swedes are much like the French—only they rather go beyond them—for they excel the French in the polish of their manners. Of this we are quite confident. Take the French of the North of Europe—as the Swedes are not unwilling to be called,—and compare them with the French of the South, and we are quite sure that the Scandinavian French will bear away the palm. We are decidedly of the opinion that the Swedish peasants are more graceful and civil, by far, than the peasants of France; whilst the best classes of Stockholm are not inferior to those of Paris. The ease and gracefulness of their movements, and the pleasant tones of their voices, when saying some compliment, or when uttering words of kindness to any one, are very agreeable. Many of the little expressions, too, which they use, are very sweet. The manner in which the most common working people wish each other success in their daily toils is not displeasing. And when a Swede meets his friend, he thanks him for the pleasure which he had when he last saw him, no matter how long or how short the intervening time has been. One never is present when Swedish friends meet, after having been absent from each other awhile, without hearing the expression “Tack för

sist"* repeated from one to another. The word *adieu* is as much used in Sweden as it is in France, to express farewell, and is heard from many voices at once, when crowds of people on the wharf take leave of their friends, who have embarked on board the steamer, and from the decks respond "*adieu*," waving their pocket-handkerchiefs at the same time.

There are some customs prevailing in all these Scandinavian countries, which are in a good degree peculiar to them, so far as we know. For instance, we are not aware that the betrothing of young persons, or the entering into a solemn engagement to marry each other, is anywhere else quite so formal and ceremonious. When this act is done, it is a common thing here for the friends to come together to express their felicitations; and thenceforth the parties stand in a peculiar relation to each other, which is almost regarded as that of marriage. The betrothing may, and often does, precede the actual marriage a long time. And during this period the parties have abundant opportunities for knowing each other better, and for cherishing those feelings of mutual respect, whose habitual indulgence for a long period lays well the foundations for happiness in the married life.

It is quite possible, or rather very probable, that this

* The same custom exists in Norway. One hears at the close of the dinner the expression "Tak for mad"—thanks for the meal, and "Vel bekomme"—may it do you good. Children use the former expression to their parents, and they use the latter in reply. Husband and wife use the same kind expressions to each other. "Tak for sidste," Mr. Laing informs us, is used by all classes, to express the gratification which they had in the society of those to whom they apply the phrase when they last met. "The common people give 'Tak for sidste' to the Swedish peasants of Jemteland, who have come across the Fjelde, and whom they have certainly not seen since the preceding year's snow, and then possibly only in taking a dram together."

formal betrothing, or rather this formal announcement and recognition of it, takes place in other countries in the north of Europe, and especially in those in which the Lutheran Church predominates. But we are quite sure that the custom which we are now about to mention does not exist in any part of the world to the same degree that it does in Sweden ; which is that of allowing all, who choose, to enter the house where a wedding has just taken place, and go into the parlör to stare at the bride and bridegroom, who must stand a long time to be the objects of this curiosity. Still more, the multitude are allowed to approach closely to the newly-married couple, survey their persons, make remarks respecting their looks, their dress, their forms, and not unfrequently respecting their characters, their past conduct, which are exceedingly mortifying and sometimes injurious in a high degree. In few things is the tyranny of fashion more fully developed than in such an absurd and wicked custom. And how it can be suffered to have place in a refined and elevated family, or in any family of any description, is a mystery to us. But the masses of the lower classes of people demand the old practice, and few are willing or able to resist it.

There are not many public buildings in Stockholm of great importance, but some of them may be often visited. Of these, none is more interesting than the palace of the king. The fact is, we have felt, when contemplating its noble and symmetrical exterior, that we could never grow tired of the sight. We consider the north front as altogether the most imposing façade of a palace which we have ever seen.

The interior, too, contains some things which one may see with interest not a few times. In the private apartments of their majesties there are some valuable pictures by the old masters, especially Rembrandt, Vandyke and Rubens, and some exquisite statues made by Sergel, Byström and other Swedish sculptors. In a wing on the

eastern side of the palace there is a collection of statues and paintings. There are some very fine specimens among the former, and a few good ones among the latter. Among the statues there is a fine group by Sergel—Cupid and Psyche; both are greatly admired. There is a grand statue of Odin, in gigantic form, made by Fogleberg, a Swedish artist still living, and of great merit. There are here some fine ancient pieces of sculpture, and also a good fac-simile of the Warwick Vase, which was a present from George IV. to the Swedish monarch.

The royal library is in the same wing of the palace, but in another story. It contains, if we remember rightly, about 80,000 volumes. It is a valuable collection of books, many of which were obtained by the victorious armies of Gustavus Adolphus in Germany, and carried to Sweden, to be used in diffusing the light of religion and science in these northern regions. Besides a fine collection of well selected works in all branches of learning, there are some of great interest as mere curiosities. One of these is a fine copy of Rudbeck's *Atlantica*; another is a huge work in manuscript, containing a whole encyclopedia of stuff, written on thick parchment, and forming by far the largest volume which we have ever seen. It is called the Devil's Bible, but why, it is not easy to say. To be sure, it is related that the devil helped a poor monk, who had gotten into difficulties, to make it, in order to extricate himself; but then the volume does not contain the bible, we believe, though it has the New Testament, it is asserted. By far the most interesting book in this library, to our eyes, was the identical bible which Luther once owned, and which he used until the day of his death. It is in Latin, and the margins are filled with notes which were written by the hand of the great Reformer. This venerable book, and many others in this library, as well as in that at Upsala, came into the hands of the Swedes when they captured

Wittemburg, under the command of Gustavus Adolphus. There are also here some interesting collections of letters written by distinguished sovereigns of this kingdom. Among them are a number which were written by Charles XII. to his sister. We have a friend who is an enormous collector of autographs, for whom we should have been most happy to obtain a few of these letters; but we might just as well have asked for the Devil's Bible as try to procure even one of these royal letters.

But the most interesting object which can attract a stranger to the palace, is the king himself. It has happened to us to see this distinguished man several times; and though he is now not far from eighty years of age, and is truly the Nestor of kings, yet he walks with much elasticity of movement, and seems, in fact, to be a man of scarcely more than fifty years of age. He is tall and erect; his person is a very commanding one. His air and carriage are exceedingly dignified, and he looks like a man who was born to command.

The history of this distinguished man has been wonderful, and deserves to be studied by young men, in order to learn from it the importance of pursuing a life of goodness. Bernadotte was born at Pau, in the south of France, where also Henry IV. was born. His father was a lawyer. To the same profession the son was at first destined, but having a taste for military affairs, he entered the army whilst he was still a very young man. Soon afterwards, the Revolution of France began. Step by step he rose, until he became first a general, and afterwards a marshal of that country, and Prince of Ponte Corvo, being one of the few men whom Napoleon elevated to the rank of princes. He played a prominent and important part in many of the great battles which Napoleon fought, previously to the year 1810. In that year, as we have stated elsewhere, he was chosen by the Diet of this kingdom to be Crown

Prince, or heir to the throne ; and since 1818 he has been seated on the throne of Sweden. And here he still lives, at an advanced age, having survived almost all the men of his epoch, and is now passing the evening of his eventful life in peace and usefulness.

There are many people who believe that Bernadotte owes all his greatness to Buonaparte ; but this is a mistake. He was a republican general of considerable distinction before Buonaparte had attained to any high command. But he was a very different man from Napoleon. He was guided less by ambition than the disposition to do his duty to his country. He was a republican, and a sincere one, we have reason to believe. He was opposed to Napoleon's overturning the Directory and destroying the Republic ; and if he could have had his way, it is probable that he might have prevented that act. But when it was done, and Bernadotte saw that the French nation submitted to it, he considered resistance as vain. Through the persuasion of Joseph Buonaparte, who is his brother-in-law, he became reconciled with Napoleon, and agreed to serve under him. This he did, with great distinction, for ten years. That he was always hated and feared by Napoleon there is every reason to believe. What made him king of Sweden, so far as relates to secondary causes, was his humane and noble treatment of the two thousand Swedes whom he made prisoners when he compelled Blücher to surrender his army of 30,000 men, in the neighborhood of Lübeck, in the month of November, 1806, as we have stated elsewhere. These men, upon their return to Sweden, filled the country with his praise. And this it was that turned the eyes of the Diet upon him when they had to choose a Crown Prince, upon the sudden death of Prince Christian Augustus of Holstein, who had been chosen for that high station. It is indeed very probable that in adopting that measure

they thought that they should do what would be highly acceptable to Buonaparte, who was greatly admired by the people of Sweden. It is altogether probable also, that they knew nothing of the real state of feeling which existed between Bernadotte and Napoleon. It is also certain, on the other hand, that Napoleon endeavored to engage Bernadotte to promote his interests, as Crown Prince of Sweden. This he refused to do. And this led to bitter and open hostility against him on the part of Buonaparte.

When Bernadotte resolved to accept the offer which the Diet made him, he adopted the noble determination to govern Sweden with sole reference to her interests. Nor had he been long in Sweden before he saw that the kingdom could not long maintain a neutral position. In view, therefore, of all the circumstances of the case, he resolved to join the allies. This he did in the summer of 1813; and it is certain that it was chiefly owing to his counsels that they adopted the course which they subsequently did, and which issued in the terrible defeat of Napoleon at the battle of Leipsic. Before that battle occurred, one of the first services which he rendered to the cause of the allies, was the saving of Blucher and his army, who had crossed the Mulda, on a certain occasion, in pursuit of Napoleon, who was retreating, for want of a larger force, down towards Leipsic.

After the battle of Leipsic, Bernadotte turned aside from pursuing Napoleon, because of his unwillingness to invade France, his native country. He therefore marched down into western Germany and took Lübeck from the French, having the same two thousand Swedes whom he captured there in 1806, under his command. He then marched against Denmark, and compelled the government of that country to cede Norway to Sweden. That he rendered, therefore, services of the

greatest importance to the allied powers, there can be no question. And he has been permitted to continue undisturbed on the throne of the country which adopted him, whilst all the thrones which Napoleon erected for himself and his brothers have long since fallen to the ground.

That Bernadotte has been a blessing to Sweden is certain. He has ruled well, considering the many difficulties which have surrounded his path. It has been unfortunate for him that he has not known the Swedish language. He has, therefore, had to learn every thing through interpreters. This is not only inconvenient, but absolutely dangerous. Still he has done well. The country never was in a more flourishing state than at present. The national debt has been extinguished, and the people are preparing gradually for extensive ameliorations.

That there are many men in Sweden who think that the king has been too much ~~disposed~~ to the reform which they suppose the state of the country demands, is quite probable. But it is also probable that the opposition party, however honest they may be, may expect too much from their good old monarch. It belongs naturally to old men to be cautious, and even timid, according to the opinions of the young and the ardent. But the Swedes ought to remember, that if their venerable sovereign, in his old age, is averse to approving measures which he deems to be inexpedient, at least at this time, they ought to bear with him in consideration of the services which he has rendered to the country during a long and critical period. Such a feeling, we are persuaded, will pervade, or rather does pervade, the breasts of the good and the wise, during those moments in which wisdom gets the advantage over passion.

It has fallen to our lot to have several private audiences

from his majesty. These interviews were full of interest. But for reasons too obvious to need to be stated, it would be indecorous in us to publish remarks which were certainly made with no expectation that they should be proclaimed to the world. Only one single fact will we relate, and even that with some hesitation, nor should we state this if we had not the hope that it might do our people good. During one of these audiences, the king observed that he had ever taken a lively interest in the history of the United States, and that he was astonished at their progress. It is without a parallel. But he expressed in the most earnest manner the necessity of the maintenance of the Union and of guarding against every thing which might lead to division. For, however great may be the evils which are experienced in our united state, they are not to be compared with those which will flow from division. Civil war will in all probability follow division, and, in the end, despotism must take the place of freedom. We wish that those men among us who talk so lightly about a division of our country, could have heard the clear and just views of this great man on this topic. It is emphatically the subject which calls for serious and profound solicitude. There is too much said about division, for this cause and for that, as if division were practicable without blood. No ; the man who even dares to whisper the proposition to divide these States and rend to pieces our happy Union, should be at once arraigned as a traitor, and brought to condign punishment. On this subject there ought to be but one sentiment throughout all our land.

The Crown Prince (whose name is Oscar) is a very interesting man. He is now about forty years of age. Although not born in Sweden, yet he has grown up from childhood familiar with its language and its institutions. He made his studies at the University of Upsala, of which institution he is Chancellor. And we may here remark,

that it is a very striking peculiarity of the times in which we live, that so many of the younger princes in Europe are growing up in the colleges in which other young men are receiving their training, and in that way they are obtaining a knowledge of the world, and especially of the people whom they may hereafter be called to rule, which will render them far more capable and better disposed than those have been who have preceded them. The Crown Prince of Sweden is a literary man, and also takes a deep interest in benevolent enterprises. When we last had the honor of an audience from him, he presented us with a copy of a most interesting work on Prison Discipline, which he had just published. At the same time he remarked that it was the very first copy which he had received from the printer. This work, we may add, shows that the Prince is most intimately acquainted with our prisons and the way in which they are managed. The Crown Princess is a daughter of Eugène Beauharnais, and a granddaughter of the Empress Josephine. She is a very lovely woman, and the mother of four little boys and one little girl, who are very well brought up. The Prince does not speak English, though he reads it well. The Princess speaks it with a good degree of facility and great propriety.

The environs of Stockholm are charming. We have made several excursions in a boat up Lake Mälär to the distance of a mile or two, and then climbed up the high rocky banks, whence the view of the city is very fine. On another occasion we went up the frith which separates King's Island from the mainland to the north of the city. After having rowed two miles we came to Carlberg, which was formerly a royal château, but is now a Military and Naval School. In the immediate vicinity of Carlberg is the royal manufactory of porcelain. Here we landed, and traversing an extensive and beautiful forest, we came to a

new cemetery, or burying ground, which promises to be a very pleasant place. It is the Mount Auburn of Stockholm.

On our return we passed the charming village of Solna, with its old church, a part of which is believed to have been a heathen temple. It is built of stone, and its walls have a thickness surpassing anything which we have ever before seen in any other building. This neighborhood is one of the most pleasant in the vicinity of Stockholm. The walk out to it, in fine weather, is charming. It lies along the frith of the lake which we had ascended in the boats of the Dalecarlian women.

On another occasion we walked out to the royal château of Haga, which stands to the north of the city, on the low lands lying at the head of a charming lake. The palace is a neat summer residence of royalty. It is a very favorite place of abode of the queen, during a part of the year. The gardens, or forests, which surround this sweet spot, are extensive and very agreeable. It is rare that one finds anything of the kind which is equal to it.

But of all the environs of Stockholm, the Djurgården, or park, is the finest. A forest comprises all but a small portion, (which is covered by houses), of an island to the northeast of the city, and distant from it about a mile, or a mile and a half, in a direct course. This spot is extensive, uneven, and covered with oaks and other trees, which are left in their natural state. Every thing here has a wild appearance. One cannot at first believe it to be possible to be translated in so short a time from the crowded city so completely into the forest. Pleasant roads for carriages, as well as for those who go on foot, traverse this uneven, but beautiful island. On a charming site, near the middle of it, stands a most lovely little palace, which his majesty caused to be erected here, and where he often spends the day, or a part of it, in the hottest season of the year.

It is a perfect jewel. It is very small, and is intended

to be rather a summer-house, or kind of royal lodge, than a palace. The name of it is Rosendal. On the eastern side of the little palace, at the distance of a few yards, stands a far-famed vase, of porphyry, the largest in the world. The color is a palish red, with white, green, and black spots. Its height is nine feet, its diameter twelve feet. It stands upon a pedestal of unpolished granite, about three feet high. It was made, and presented to the king, by the Dalecarlian Peasants.

On the western side of this park is a bust, on a pedestal of granite, of the celebrated Swedish ballad-poet Bellman. He was a man of talents, but too fond of the bowl. He was author of many of the celebrated drinking-songs which are sung at this day throughout Sweden.

But what gives us more satisfaction to state, there is an asylum for the deaf and dumb on the lower side of this island, in a very pleasant situation, where there are some 60 pupils or more, receiving instruction from suitable teachers. The establishment is under the direction of a man who devotes himself most enthusiastically to this benevolent enterprise.

CHAPTER XIII.

EDUCATION AND LITERATURE OF SWEDEN.

Nothing done by the Government of Sweden to promote primary schools, and yet there are but few persons who cannot read and write—Reasons for this—Laudable efforts of Gustavus Wasa, John III., and Charles XI.—Anxiety of Swedish parents to give their children an education—Peter Læstadius' account of his parents—The Gymnasia—The Trivial Schools—The University of Upsala—Its library—Number of its professors—Their salaries, and how raised—Classes in society to which the Swedish students belong—Spirited young men—University of Lund—Literature of Sweden modern—Names of some of the most distinguished authors and artists who have lived in Sweden—Learned societies and institutions in the kingdom—The periodical press.

It is a remarkable fact, that although the Government of Sweden has, until this day, done nothing for the promotion of primary schools, yet it is supposed that it is not possible to find one grown person out of a thousand who cannot read. This statement, it is probable, is somewhat too strong; but there is no doubt that there are very few, comparatively, who do not know how to read, and almost all know how to write. And yet this has not been so much the result of instruction in schools, as at the fire-side. Parents have taught their children, and from generation to generation this has been so. They have felt that this was as much a part of their duty, as to provide food and clothing for their offspring. Necessity has also co-operated to bring about this result; for in the sparsely settled portions of the kingdom, it has been difficult, if not impossible, to maintain schools, save upon the peripatetic method which now exists in Norway, and is wholly a modern invention.

This general diffusion of elementary instruction among the people, is justly ascribed to the laudable zeal of Gustavus Wasa and his immediate successors. John III. ordered that the nobleman who was unable to read should forfeit his nobility—a law which exists until this day. And Charles XI., in 1684, required the clergy to see that every individual in their parishes should be taught to read. He also made it a law, that no marriage should be celebrated, unless the parties had previously taken the Lord's Supper; and that none should partake of this ordinance who could not read, and who was not instructed in religion. The law still stands which requires every one to present himself to the pastor of the parish in which he resides, in order to receive the necessary instruction for coming to the communion-table, or for making his first communion, as it is usually called. And, in case he does not, the civil authorities, upon information given by the pastor, may send a constable to bring him! It does not follow, that he will be admitted to the communion immediately upon his presenting himself; but he must present himself for the necessary instruction. All this renders elementary teaching absolutely necessary. No man can bear testimony in a court of justice, unless he has received the sacrament of the Lord's Supper within one year before the time of his giving his testimony. All these regulations, however unreasonable some of them are, and injurious to religion, have operated to the universal diffusion of elementary education.

Parish schools are by no means very numerous. Wherever there are lands or funds bequeathed to their support, and in some other places, they exist. In most places they are fixed; and in some they are ambulatory, as in Norway. The total number of these schools is, however, unknown. In the province of Wexio-län, in eighty-six parishes and sub-parishes, there were lately but twenty-

nine schools of all descriptions, for giving elementary instruction ; and yet in that province, out of 40,000 people, only one adult person was found who could not read. It is supposed that one half of the parishes in the kingdom have no schools—the children being taught by their parents at home.

Peter Læstadius, who filled an ecclesiastical office in Lapland, and who was himself a son of one of the settlers in the colonies which border that country, gives a very interesting account, in his "Journal of a Year's Missionary* Service in Lapland," published in 1836, of the privations and hardships which his parents had to endure in the lonely forests, far from any other habitation. "Yet," says he, "with all their poverty, and all their striving for the most pressing necessities of life, our parents never forgot or put off the teaching of us to read. Before we could well speak, our father taught us our prayers ; and these were the first thing in the morning and the last at night. Our mother spared no pains to teach us to read in a book ; and at five years of age I could read any Swedish book, and at six could give reasonable answers to questions on the chief points of Christianity." And this was done in one of the poorest families among these new settlers, who gained their scanty means of living from catching fish, making glue from the horns of rein-deer, and a little produce from their dairy. An interesting fact is stated in this work, which is, that learning is held in such respect, even in the extreme northern parts of Sweden, that students who have concluded their course of education at the Gymnasium, in Hernosand, but who have not sufficient pecuniary resources to enable them to complete their studies at Upsala, receive recommendations from the Consistory, and

* Mr. Læstadius was not, however, a missionary, in our sense of the word.

a permission to collect a viaticum, or the means of going to the University, within certain parishes. "And every peasant thinks it a duty to give them something, generally twelve skillings; and the poorest scholar will thus collect from 300 to 700 dollars"—or from 75 to 175 dollars of our money.*

The attention of the present Diet has been called to the subject of primary schools; and it will not be long, it is believed, before the Government takes up the question in earnest, and establishes a system by which a more extended education may be secured to all the people. In this respect, Norway has set a noble example to her partner in the Scandinavian commonwealth.†

Above the common, or primary schools, there are Gymnasias—twelve or fourteen in number—which answer, in some respects, to our colleges, though not equal to the best of them, particularly in the mathematical and physical branches.

There are also what are called Trivial Schools,‡ which answer nearly to our High Schools, and exist in a number of the largest cities and towns. In the Trivial Schools, besides instruction in the higher branches of a common

* We have taken these facts from Mr. Laing's "Tour in Sweden," pages 186—188. They were fully confirmed by the testimony of several excellent persons whom we met at Hudiksvall, during our visit to the North, as well as by the good Bishop Franzen, whose diocese extends from Hernösand, as its centre, over all the northern part of the kingdom. We had the pleasure of making the acquaintance of this distinguished bishop and poet, and rejoiced to find so good a man in charge of that vast hyperborean diocese.

† Since the above paragraph was written, we have received the intelligence that the Diet has actually passed the law referred to, and ordered the establishment of an efficient National School System.

‡ So called from the Latin word Trivium, or a place where three streets meet. It is therefore equivalent to our expression—a public place, or thoroughfare.

Swedish education, the elements of the Latin and Greek languages, and some knowledge of mathematics, are taught. In some, if not all, of these Trivial Schools, and perhaps in some of the Gymnasias, there are what are called Apologetic classes, or classes for learning the modern languages, such as the French, the German, and the English. But if any one wishes us to tell why they are called Apologetic classes, we have to say most respectfully to him, that we do not know.

There are two universities in Sweden ; one at Upsala, and the other at Lund. The university of Upsala is the older, having been founded by Sten Sture in the year 1476 ; a seminary of education had, however, been established there by Birger Jarl two centuries earlier. That of Lund was founded in 1668, during the minority of Charles XI.

The university of Upsala is the larger and better endowed of these two universities. The present number of students in actual attendance is about 1,000 ; though the number on the books, and who are attending at intervals—some being away, engaged in teaching, or for other causes, occasionally—is not much short of 1,500. The number of professors is 47, together with an undefined number of adjuncts and teachers. Of these 47 professors, 25 are ordinary, of whom four give instruction in theology, two in law, five in medicine, and fourteen in philosophy, which comprehends Mathematics, Chemistry, Greek, Physics, Natural History, Logic, &c. The faculty of each of the four departments of theology, law, &c., confer degrees on written theses, and after a certain number of examinations and disputations. But these degrees are conferred privately, with the exception of those in philosophy. A promotion, or Commencement, as we call it, for the conferring of degrees in this faculty, is held once in three years, in the month of June.

Charles IX., Gustavus Adolphus, and his daughter, Christina, endowed this university with lands and other sources of revenue, from the annual income of which it is sustained, and the salaries of ordinary and extraordinary professors are paid. When the Reformation took place, the government appropriated the tithes which had hitherto been paid to the monasteries, and the support of the regular clergy, (that is, the clergy belonging to some order, such as the Franciscans, the Benedictines, &c.,) to its own purposes; in part, and in part to the promotion of education; and the universities were endowed out of these tithes. Donations were also made by individuals.

At Upsala the salaries of the professors are paid, in part, in grain, or in the sum of money which it is worth, according to the market price. The highest salaries are 300 *tunnor*,* which, at the average value of $7\frac{3}{4}$ dollars banco,† produce an income of 2,325 *banco dollars*, or \$871,87½ of our money. The adjuncts receive 65 barrels of grain, or about 200 American dollars. Of course, as the price of grain fluctuates very much, the salaries of the professors vary in proportion. For instance, in 1838, when the price of grain was nearly double its ordinary price, the salaries were nearly double in nominal or rather pecuniary value. As in the other universities on the continent, the professors in Upsala gain something from their private courses of lectures. The Docentes depend wholly on what they receive in this way from the students.

The students of the university of Upsala keep up the old arrangement of Nations, as they were called, which existed formerly in the University of Paris, and indeed in all the early universities in Europe. There are twelve Nations at Upsala, each of which has its hall, or place of meeting,

* The tonna or barrel contains, we believe, about 4½ bushels of English measure.

† The dollar *banco* is equivalent to about 37½ cents of our money.

—with the exception of two or three, which use the halls of others—its dean, or chief officer, and its various ranks of seniors, juniors, &c.

There is no one building in which all the professors give their lectures ; some use the Old Library for this purpose, others the halls of the "Nations," which are situated in different parts of the town.

The following statistical view is interesting in relation

	Students on the books.	Students present.	Students in Theology.	Law.	Medicine.	Philosophy.	Not fired on a Profession.
UPSALA.	1458	844	336	325	86	365	341
LUND.	632	421	141	105	56	169	161
	2085	1265	477	430	142	534	502

	Sons of the Nobility.	Sons of the Clergy.	Sons of Burghers.	Sons of Peasants.	Sons of persons not belonging to the preceding classes.	Sons of public functionaries.
UPSALA.	153	334	245	212		310
LUND.	26	165	140	143	199	132
	179	499	385	355	199	442

to the universities of Upsala and Lund ; and although it was made out in 1830, it may be considered as a sufficiently correct representation of the present state of those Universities, on the points to which it relates, inasmuch as there has been no material change in the number of the students who attend these institutions.

This view, as Mr. Laing justly remarks, presents some facts which are highly honorable to the Swedish nation. It cannot have escaped the notice of the reader that it is from the sons of the clergy and of the peasants, that the majority of the students of the Universities are derived. It is also very honorable to the nation that the students in her Universities are about as 1 to 1,400 of her entire population.

The new University building is a very fine one. The library is large. It contained ten years ago about 60,000 volumes. But it is much larger at present. It possesses a valuable collection of sagas and other manuscripts, the most celebrated of which is the "Codex Argenteus," containing the four Gospels in silver letters—very curious on account of its great antiquity, and supposed to be a copy of the Gothic translation made by Ulfilas, the apostle of the Goths in the fourth century.

Among the professors at Upsala there are several men of distinguished merit, of whom we may mention Professor Geijer, who is one of the best historians of the present day, and a man of very general attainments. Their incomes are not great ; but as living in Sweden is not expensive, they are enabled to live comfortably and creditably on very moderate salaries. They are, as a body, distinguished for urbanity of manners, hospitality, and attention to strangers, as well as an honorable discharge of their professional duties.

The students, too, are a good-looking body of youth. We have seldom met young men of finer appearance

than those whom we saw take their degrees in Philosophy at the promotion in June, 1836. We could not, however, but regret to see so free a use of brandy at the public breakfast and dinner on that occasion. But we do not know that the conduct of the young men was more censurable than that of their superiors in age and station, and who ought to have exhibited a better example.

On the occasion referred to, we met some two hundred gentlemen, many of them persons of great distinction, at a public breakfast in the Orangery in the old Botanical Gardens of Linnæus. We observed that a glass of brandy was set by each plate, as if it were an essential part of the entertainment. And such it assuredly was considered by the guests; for, excepting our humble selves, we do not remember that we saw one individual who did not drink the apportioned glass of brandy. But, however strange this might appear to us for the moment, we could not but remember that we had seen things just as bad, if not worse, in our own country, at the public dinners, a few years ago, on the Fourth of July, and other holiday occasions. Those were the days of ignorance, which, thank God, are destined to pass away in every country.

It was Dr. Clarke, we believe, who affected to ridicule the uncouth dress and appearance of the students in Upsala, at the time when he visited that university. But whatever may have been the opinions of that celebrated traveler respecting some of their predecessors, we have every reason to believe that the present students of that distinguished seat of learning think not meanly of themselves. On the occasion of the consecration of the excellent Dr. Wingård as Archbishop of Upsala and Primate of Sweden, and his induction into that high office, a few months ago, the good Doctor, in his address to the students, called them his "young friends." This familiarity was highly resented. "Who gave him the right to take such a

liberty with us as to call us his friends?" they exclaimed, as they proudly and loftily strutted along the walks in the "grove of Odin," after the delivery of the most paternal address of the Archbishop. "Who gave him the right to take such a liberty as that with us?" And sure enough, we also say, who did? Certainly it was a most unpardonable degree of presumption, and not for an instant to be tolerated.*

In the University of Lund the number of ordinary professors, this year, is twenty-four, viz. four in the theological Faculty, four in the legal, four in the medical, and twelve in the philosophical. Besides these, there are eleven adjunct professors.

* But seriously: The reader will see from the above-quoted language that these young gentlemen of the university of Upsala have as much self-importance as the students in our own colleges. We doubt if the "lordlings of creation" who frequent Harvard University or Nassau Hall could go much beyond this. There are people among us, who, never having known much of other countries,—whether they have traveled abroad or not—are always finding fault with what exists at home. According to these people, there is neither discipline in our colleges and academies, nor can there be, because, forsooth, we are republicans! Neither the one nor the other of these assertions is true. In every well regulated school and college in the land there is not only discipline, but strict discipline too. Nor are our young men a whit more self-important or more difficult to govern than those of any country in Europe that is blessed with the "patriarchal"—alias, regal,—"form of government." If discipline be wanting anywhere among us, the fault should not be attributed to the nature of our political institutions, nor to that of our youth, but to the foolish weakness of parents who will not enforce it on their children. There are among us some superficial and visionary persons who have advanced the doctrine that all corporal punishment of youth, in school and elsewhere, is to be banished. For ourselves, we believe in no such nonsense, but advocate a judicious application of the rod when children need it. There is great virtue in it, as both the Bible and experience do abundantly teach.

The number of students in actual attendance is 450, of whom about 100 are students in Theology.

The revenue of the University is derived from several sources :

	Rd. Rgs.
From land and tithes 7,400 Swedish barrels (tun- nor) of wheat, and valued this year, at 60,000 Rd. Rgs.	60,000
From the interest on its own funds	11,000
From the budget of the kingdom annually	25,000
	<hr/>
	96,000

or 24,000 dollars of our currency.

The Library of the University contains about 70,000 volumes.

Several of the professors of this university are men of considerable reputation, among whom we may mention the Rev. John Henry Thomander, D.D., Professor of Pastoral Theology.

A Theological Review, which was conducted during some eight or ten years at Lund, by the Rev. Drs. Thomander and Reuterdalh, Professors in Theology, has lately ceased ; and a Weekly Literary Gazette has taken its place.

LITERATURE OF SWEDEN.

The literature of Sweden is quite modern. Until within a century, this kingdom had but few authors who were known beyond the bounds of their native country. Sweden was, in the periods which preceded, more celebrated for the arts of war than for those which relate to peace, and which flourish chiefly in times of peace. There were indeed some very learned men in Sweden in the 16th and 17th centuries ; but they chiefly wrote in Latin, and the Swedish language was then greatly neglected. A long list might be made of

writers in those periods. But they have been eclipsed by brighter names, which have appeared in the literary history of their country, during the last hundred years. Among the most celebrated men of the 16th century were Olaus and Laurentius Petri, the coadjutors of Gustavus Wasa in the great work of the reformation of their country from the errors of popery. Laurentius Petri edited the first Swedish Bible that was published, in 1541. Erik, son of Gustavus Wasa, was something of a scholar and also a writer. Gustavus Adolphus was another royal author. He wrote some short poems and hymns, and commenced an autobiography, which was continued by Oxenstierna. During this period lived Archbishop Andræ Angermannus, Bishop Johannes Rudbeck, Erik Jövenson Tegel, and Johannes Messenius.

The Swedish scholars divide the history of their literature into six periods.

The first comprehends the reigns of Gustavus Wasa and his sons, during which the authors above-named lived and wrote.

The second period commences with George Stjerntjelm, (who died 1672), and lasts from 1632 till 1733. This author published a didactic poem entitled *Hercules*, and six other works. The principal authors of this period were, in Theology: Hagin Spegel and Bishop Swedberg, father of the famous Emmanuel Swedenborg: in History; J. Widikindi, J. Werwing, C. Rudbeck, author of the *Atlantica*, C. Verelius, J. Peringskald, J. Björner: in Philosophy; A. Rydelius, a man of superior genius: in Chemistry; C. Hjärne. During this period lived N. Tessin, the architect, Ehrenstrahl and E. Dahlberg, painters. The last-named was author of the highly interesting work entitled *SUECIA ANTIQUA*.

The third period begins with Olaf von Dalin, who edited the *Swedish Argus*, and wrote a history of Sweden,

and many other works. The most distinguished authors of this era were, in Theology ; Emmanuel Swedenborg, who wrote much, and E. Tollstadius : in History ; Batin, Lagerbring, and especially Celsius : in Philosophy ; Ihre, author of the excellent work entitled *Glossarium Suio-Gothicum* : in Natural History ; C. von Linnæus, the most celebrated of all Swedish authors : in Poetry ; G. F. Creutz, Gyllenborg, Skäldebrand, Nordenflycht, Mörk, author of the first Swedish Romance, Sahlstedt, who published a Swedish Dictionary, and N. Rosin von Rosenstein, a renowned physician : in Mathematics ; Melanderhjelm, Klingenshjerna, and especially C. Polhem, who possessed a great genius.

The fourth period extends from 1778 till 1795. Gustavus III., who reigned during that period, not only surrounded himself with literary men, and encouraged learning and the arts, but was himself author of poems, orations, and dramas, both in Swedish and French. The other authors of most note in this period, were, in Theology ; Oedmann, who wrote many excellent works, Lehnberg, and Fant : in Philosophy ; Thorild, Rosenstein, and Ehrensvarð : in Poetry ; Kellgren, Bellman, called the Anacreon of Sweden, J. G. Oxenstjerna, Adlerbeth, who translated Virgil, Horace and Ovid, Lidner, and Madame A. M. Lenngren : in Chemistry ; Bergman and C. W. Scheele : in Jurisprudence ; M. Calenius : in Medicine ; O. af Akrell and D. von Schulzenheim : in Fine Arts ; Sergel, sculptor. But J. H. Kellgren stands foremost among the elegant writers of this period.

The fifth period, called the Leopold era, extends from 1795 till 1810. During this period lived Councillor Leopold, author of philosophical treatises, poems, and dramas, &c. In theology ; Archbishop Wallin, to whom the Swedish church owes her improved hymn book, F. M. Franzen, bishop of Hernösand, and author of sermons,

poems, and psalms ; Hagberg, Bishop Hedren, Aström : in poetry, besides Leopold, Wallin and Franzen, just named, E. Tegner, bishop of Wexio, author of the *Frithiof Saga*, and many other things ; Stenhammer, Skoldebrand, Lindegren, Choræus, and Stjernstolpe : in medicine ; the three brothers Afzelius, Sacklen, and Florman ; in natural philosophy and history, C. Swartz, A. J. Retzius, K. P. Thunberg, Dahlman, and especially Jacob Berzelius (born 1779), who is the greatest of living chemists.

The sixth period extends from 1810 till the present time, and is called the Era of the New School. Within this period a great reformation in literature has been effected in Sweden by the influence of the journal called the "*Polyphem*," published by J. C. Askelaf (who is now the editor of the *Minerva*), the "*Phosphorus*," by P. D. A. Atterbom and F. W. Palmblad, and the "*Iduna*," by E. G. Geijer. These authors accuse the Old School of imitating French literature, and prefer the German as a model. During this period the study of ancient Swedish history and literature has made great progress.

L. Hammaraskold, perhaps the most zealous of the New School, published many works—among which is a history of Swedish literature from the earliest times. The other most distinguished writers have been—in poetry ; E. Stagnelius, a man of great genius ; P. H. Ling, also eminent ; J. Sjobery, known by the name of "*Vitalis* ;" R. A. Nicander, Atterbom, above named, at present professor in Upsala, and author of many poems and philosophical works ; B. Von Beskov, Madame J. C. Nyburg, known as "*Euphrosyne*," A. A. Grafstion, A. Headborn, A. Lindeblad, C. F. Dahlgren, author of humorous poems ; P. Wieselgren, Miss F. Bremer, author of many beautiful moral tales : history ; E. G. Geijer, professor in Upsala, A. M. Strinnholm, M. Bruselius, J. Ekeland, S. W

Palmblad, author of various historical and geographical works, and A. Fryxell: in theology, besides some authors already named; Dr. John Thomander, professor in Lund, a man of great genius and acquirements, C. G. Rogberg, A. Lundgren, Dr. Bruhn, bishop of Gottenburg, and author of a compendium of theology and church history: in philosophy; B. K. H. Höyer, and N. F. Biberg; S. Grubbe, formerly professor in Upsala, and now minister for the Ecclesiastical Department: in botany; C. A. Agardt, bishop of Carlstad, Professor G. Waklenberg: in natural history; Professor E. Fries, Professor S. Nilson, B. Fries, C. J. Sunderrall: in painting; A. Laureus, Landberg Fahlcrantz, Westin, Södermark, and Wickenberg: in Sculpture; Byström, Fogelberg, very distinguished, Quanström: in statistics; C. Forsell: in geology; W. Hisinger, H. Järta, eminent for style. Professor C. Forsell, artist, published "A year in Sweden," which contains 48 very good engravings of Swedish costumes.

The university of Upsala has long had distinguished scholars on the list of its professors. Among the most famous men whose names are identified with this venerable seat of learning are, Celsius, Rudbeck, Linnaeus, Scheele, Swartz, Oedman, Geijer, one of the greatest of all modern historians; De Gêer, Nordberg, who improved the steam-engine; Nordvall, (a first-rate engineer, under whose direction the famous canal at Trollhötta was completed), Nordmark and Klingensjtjerna, mathematicians, and Ihre, linguist and antiquarian.

Many valuable works have owed their existence to the Academy of Belles Lettres, established in 1753, by Queen Ulrica Eleanora, and renovated in 1786, by Gustavus III. The object of this institution was to elucidate the national annals, and among the contributors to its productions are to be found many distinguished authors.

The establishment of the Royal Academy of the Arts

and Sciences, (in 1730), has done much for Sweden and the world. Linnaeus was the first president and chief ornament of that literary body.

The Academy of Eighteen, founded by Gustavus III., has produced several distinguished men, among whom we may mention Councillor Leopold, Lidner, Solverstolpe, Edelkrantz, Liliestrale, Ehrensvar, Elgström, Klengren, Ling, Beskov. Atterbom is often styled the Goethe, and Madame Aspin, the Mrs. Hemans of the North.

Among the living authors, the most renowned are, Geijer and Schroder, editors of the *SCRIPTORES RERUM SUEVICARUM MEDIÆ ÆVI*, and other works illustrative of the old Scandinavian Chronicles; and Tegner and Franzen, as poets. The former is an exceedingly popular author. His *Axele*, a Romance, and his *Legend of Frithiof*, have been translated into English. His war-songs are said to be truly martial in their spirit, and models of that species of composition.

The fine arts have been very considerably cultivated in Sweden. The Academy of Painting and Sculpture, which Gustavus III. enlarged and remodelled, has contributed much to promote the art for whose advancement it was instituted. Among its most distinguished members was Sergel, esteemed in his day one of the best sculptors in Europe. Several eminent painters have been connected with this institution, among whom we may mention Breda, Lafrensen, Martin, Belanger, Deprez, Vestmuller, Gillberg, De Geer and Skiolbrand. Vestin, Lindberg and Fahlcrantz, are esteemed fine painters. Göthie, Byström and Fogelberg, excel as sculptors. The first has made a fine statue of his majesty Charles John XIV.; the last has executed an admirable statue of Odin, of which we spoke in our last chapter.

There is no University at Stockholm, yet it has many learned institutions, some of which have already been

mentioned. The Royal College of Medicine is established here, and is well provided with professors. Mineralogy, Political Economy, and many other branches of knowledge, are taught in this city, by able lecturers. The Royal Library is daily open to the public at certain fixed hours.

There are not a few literary and scientific journals published in Sweden; but we cannot notice them. The Annual Reports of the several learned societies are extremely valuable. Two able Reviews have been, for several years, published at Upsala and Lund.

As to the newspaper press, it is a good deal shackled by a censorship. Successful attempts are continually made to evade it by a change of the name of the journal in some particular or other. The most able opposition paper published in Stockholm is the Aftonblad, edited by Count Hjerta. It has a wide circulation. The State Gazette is the chief government paper. The Minerva is said to be under the influence of Russia. Every large town in Sweden has its newspaper; the capital has many. The entire number of the journals in the kingdom is supposed to be about eighty. The discussions in the papers are often exceedingly animated, and they never were more so than at present.

CHAPTER XIV.

VISIT TO THE NORTH OF SWEDEN.

Left Stockholm in a steamer for the north of Sweden—Voyage up a portion of the Lake Mälär to Upsala—Scenery of the lake—Sigtuna—Upsala—Its University—Its Cathedral—Tomb of Linnæus—Monument of Gustavus Wasa—Scenes in his life—Other Monuments in this church—Gardens of Linnæus—New Botanical Gardens—Statue of Linnæus—Set out for Danemora—Plains of Upsala—Old Upsala—Ancient Church—Mounds of Odin, Thor and Freya—Appearance of the country through which we passed—Interesting anecdote—Danemora Mines—An account of them—Entered into them—Gefle—Dalecarlia—Character and dress of the inhabitants of that country—Sabbath—Old Church—Interesting service—Funeral of a child—Readers—An interesting meeting on a mountain—Close of the day.

TUESDAY, August 18. Left Stockholm for Upsala, this morning at 8 o'clock, on board the Upland, one of the many steam-boats which now ply between Stockholm and various cities and towns on Lake Mälär. The weather was fine, and our little steamer was crowded with passengers who were going either to Upsala, or to some of the intervening towns and landing places. This is one of the pleasantest excursions which the environs of Stockholm afford, Indeed there is nothing finer of the kind in Sweden.

The distance from Stockholm to Upsala is 45 English miles by land, and 50 by water. The course is almost due north. The scenery at this season, on the lake, is beautiful. Lake Mälär, like all the other lakes of Sweden, is dotted with islands. Perhaps it may be said to abound more in them than any other inland sea in the kingdom, for it is estimated that it contains as many as thirteen.

hundred. Of course, they are mostly small. Nearly all are still covered down to the water's edge, with forests of pine, birch, and other species of trees of northern growth. Here and there a small farm appears to diversify the scene, which otherwise would be nothing else than one of forest and water. In pleasant and commanding situations are erected summer residences belonging to the nobility of the country, or to the wealthy citizens of the capital. There are some royal châteaux on the portion of the lake through which we passed. The very pleasant summer palace of Drottningholm is the first. It stood on our left hand, as we ascended the lake, at the distance of a few miles from Stockholm. It is a very pleasant place, and is often visited by the royal family. Indeed the Crown Prince and his family spend a good deal of their time in the summer, at this charming spot. Further on, to the right hand, is a favorite château of the present king, called *Rosersberg*, buried in the forest. The access is by a bay or small channel, leading up from the greater one which our steam-boat pursued, the entrance into which is defended, as it were, by a small island, called Gibraltar, from its supposed miniature resemblance of that far-famed promontory.

But the most charming spot on the lake is the celebrated palace of Skokloster, which is believed to be the finest private residence in all Sweden. This property belongs to Count Brahé, who has long been the friend and, in a sense, the favorite minister of the present king. Its lofty white walls, surmounted by beautifully-shaped turrets, have a striking appearance as seen from the passing steam-boat. The grounds around are laid out with taste; and every thing betokens the abode both of wealth and of cultivated taste. The lands once belonged to a pretender to the throne of Sweden, who suffered the penalty of death for his temerity. His body lies interred here.

The only town or village worthy of mention which we passed was Sigtuna, celebrated as the place where Odin established his throne, and which he built, calling it after his own original name of *Sigge*, and adding the word *tuna*, which signifies *town*, in the ancient language of the country, or rather in that which Odin and his followers spoke. Sigtuna was never a large city. Upsala for centuries, and afterwards Stockholm, were far more important places. At present Sigtuna is only a scattered village, with two or three towers,—remains of some ancient buildings,—standing as memorials of times long gone-by. However insignificant may be its present state, it is not in human nature to pass by a place which has been the cradle of the ancient religion of Scandinavia, the abode of Odin, and Frigga, and Thor, and others of the Odinic family, who became afterwards the deified objects of worship in all this region, and stamped so deep an impression upon the character of the barbarous tribes which for ages occupied these scenes, without being interested in them.

Throughout our whole course there were continual, striking changes of scenery. At one time the channel was of considerable width, perhaps a mile or two; at others, it contracted, until it seemed impossible for the steam-boat to pass. In two or three places it appeared as if we had arrived absolutely at the end of the lake. For some time the eye could discover no passage in any direction. At length, however, a narrow channel opened unexpectedly, into which our steamer entered, without even diminishing her speed. About six miles before we reached Upsala, we entered what is called a river, but which much more resembles a wide canal, that comes down from that city through a fine, flat, meadow country, affording a beautiful contrast with the rocky island-country through which we had passed. This wide extent of bottom, or alluvial land, is fertile and well cultivated.

At length we reached Upsala, which lies chiefly on the right bank of the little stream just mentioned, and is protected on the west by an elevated bluff, on which stands the house of the Governor of the province of Upland. It is a long and high brick building, with a round tower at each end. In fact, it is a portion of an immense square palace which once occupied this hill; the other parts of which have been destroyed by fires at various times, the most destructive of which were occasioned by lightning. This palace was a favorite residence of the eccentric Christina.

The population of Upsala is about 6,000 souls. Here is the most famous University of Sweden. The new building, erected for the library and other purposes, is a noble structure, of four stories in height. It is of brick, and is about 200 feet in length. It occupies a commanding position near the Governor's house, and from its top there is one of the finest views which the country affords. The library is extensive and well selected. It contains 100,000 printed volumes and 5,000 manuscripts. Here is the famous *Codex Argenteus*. Here also are two large boxes, which Gustavus III. committed to the University, with the charge that they should not be opened until fifty years after his death. That period will be completed in 1842. They are thought to contain papers relating to the change which he effected in the government in the year 1772, which we have mentioned in another place. They are not supposed to be of any importance.

On the eastern side of the city, across the little river or stream which traverses it, lie the botanical gardens of the celebrated Linnæus. Here stands his house. This garden is now sadly neglected; a new one, north of the city, and immediately in the rear of the Governor's palace, having been of late years laid out, and stocked in the best manner. It is one of the finest botanical gardens in the north of

Europe. In the hall of the building erected in this garden, to preserve the specimens in natural history belonging to the University, there is an admirable statue of Linnæus, executed a few years since at the expense of the students, by Byström, one of the best living artists of Sweden. It represents the great and good Father of Botany in the attitude of reading his lectures to his classes. It is said to be an admirable likeness, and a perfect representation of his appearance as he sat and instructed his pupils.

But the chief object of attraction in Upsala is its celebrated Cathedral. This is the most renowned edifice of its kind in the north of Europe. It was erected in the twelfth century by the archbishops of Upsala, which was the archiepiscopal seat for all Sweden, whose primates, for two or three centuries previous to the Reformation, were among the most wealthy and powerful of the entire Roman Catholic hierarchy. The exterior of this venerable pile is not very imposing; it is of brick, and the two only remaining square towers are surmounted with cupolas of wood, covered with copper plates. But the interior is a beautiful specimen of the old Gothic style of architecture. Its lofty columns and elegantly shaped arches form one of the finest views of the kind which we have ever seen. In the side chapels there are a number of tombs and monuments, one of the handsomest of which is erected to the honor of Linnæus, whose body lies in a vault covered by a large stone, near to the great door in the western end of the church. In one of the chapels are the splendid monuments of John III. and his wife. In another, on the same side of the church, is the gold and silver service used in the sacrament of the Holy Supper, together with the crowns of one of the Swedish kings (John III., we believe,) and his queen, a cross of pure gold some two or three feet in length, two sceptres of gold and other valuable articles; and what is not less interesting to the lovers of antiquity,

an old image of Thor, which is believed by the antiquarians to be a veritable emblem of that Scandinavian god, and as such, to have been an object of worship. It may be so ; for the old black wooden image is ugly enough to represent Thor or any other heathen divinity ; and although it has probably been preserved with care, it shows evident marks of the wear and tear which it may well be supposed to have undergone in a thousand years.

But the chapel which is situated immediately behind the great altar, and which contains the mausoleum of Gustavus Wasa and two of his three queens, is one of great interest. The statues of these three personages lie side by side in state, on a lofty marble platform, in the centre of the chapel. The sculpture is admirable. The king and both the queens are represented in the full costume of the period in which they lived.

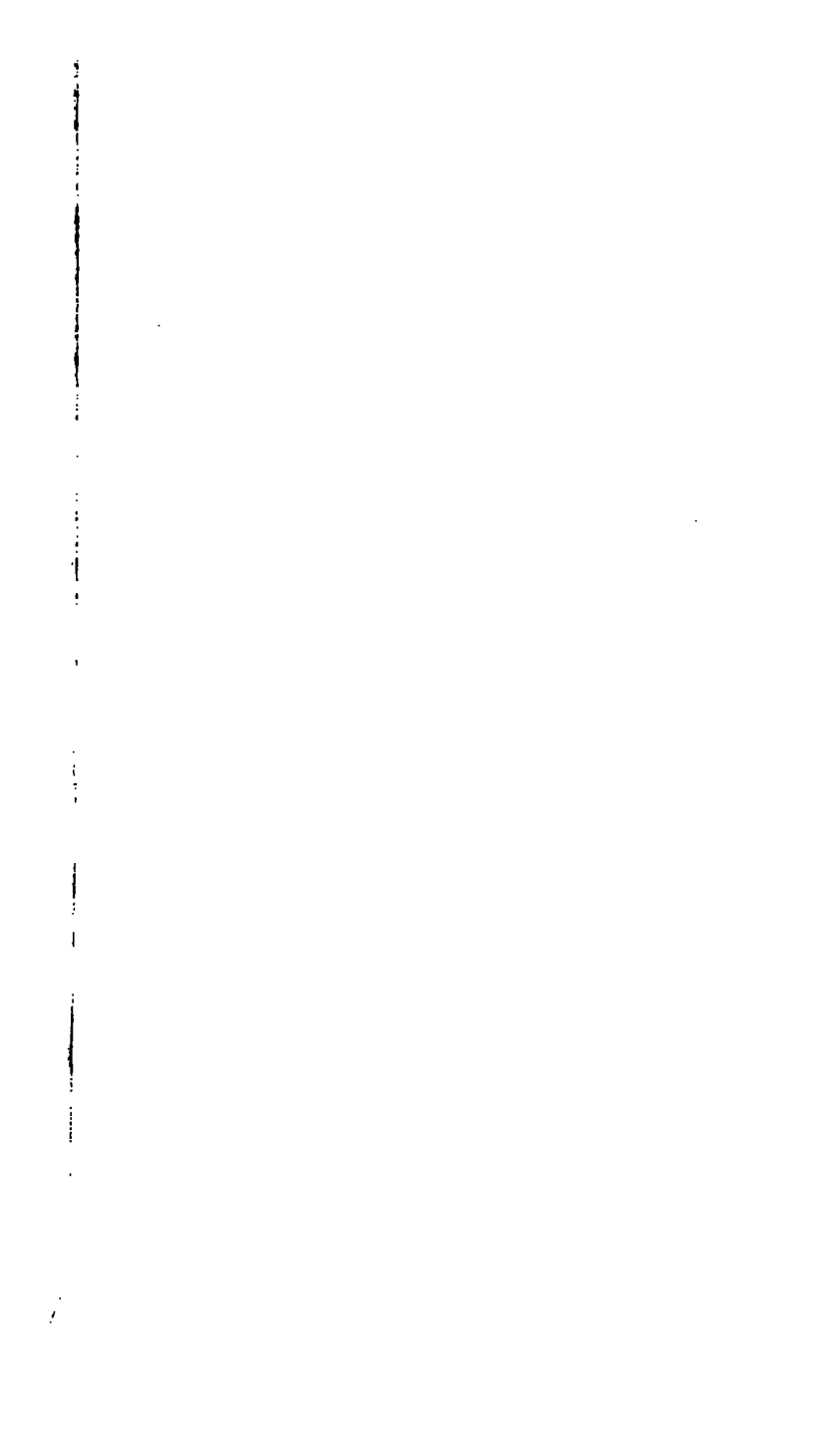
On the walls of the chapel are two great paintings and five smaller ones, in fresco, and made by Sandberg. One of the smaller paintings represents a battle scene, and another exhibits Gustavus Wasa as dwelling in concealment among the peasants in Dalecarlia, and making his living by threshing.

Another represents him standing on a tombstone, and addressing the peasants of Dalecarlia in the churchyard of the Mora Parish, after the service of the church was ended. It was in the midst of winter. Under such circumstances he made himself known to the Dalecarlians, and by his simple and animated address fired their minds with the desire of delivering their country from the tyranny of the Danes. The entire scene as represented in this picture is most striking. The wintry aspect of the snow-clad ground and church ; the earnest look of Gustavus Wasa, then a young man ; the profound attention of the peasants, dressed in the costume which they wear until this day—their sheep-skin cloaks or short surtouts, with the wool turned



GUSTAVUS WASA.

Gustavus Wasa was the deliverer of his country from the tyranny of the Danes. He was a wise, patriotic, and firm ruler. In many traits of his character he resembled George Washington.



inside, their dark colored short clothes and white stockings, their thick heavy shoes with large buckles, and the instep of the shoe turned down in the shape of a large flap, and their sugar-loaf-shaped hats with the broad ; brims the evident preparation of some for action ; render the whole scene most interesting. A fourth presents him before the citizens and magistrates of Lübeck, entreating the help of that city, after his escape from captivity in Denmark. A fifth represents him as receiving the Bible, translated into Swedish, from Olaus and Laurentius Petri, two distinguished ministers of the Gospel in Sweden, the latter of whom was the first Protestant archbishop of Upsala.

One of the large paintings represents Gustavus Wasa on horseback, and addressing the people of Stockholm on some great occasion. In the other he appears wearing his crown and royal robes, and delivering from his throne his farewell discourse to the Estates of the Parliament, June 16, 1560, on the occasion of his giving up the crown to his son Erik. The words which are quoted from the addresses delivered on these occasions, and which the artist has placed below, display a great mind, and a heart deeply imbued with a sense of dependence on Providence, and attachment to the word of God.

These extracts are as follows : under the first picture—
“ All who have arrived at some age have themselves seen, and all others clearly understand, how our country was formerly in a state of great oppression and misery from foreign authorities and kings, and how it pleased God by me to deliver us from this tyranny. We ought, therefore, high and low, rich and poor, master and servant, old and young, never to forget this divine help. For what sort of a man was I, that I could set myself up against one who was a mighty king over three kingdoms, and, withal, in covenant and friendship with the Emperor and other most powerful princes ? God has carried on the work, and man

me the instrument of his wonders. I may well compare myself with David, who was raised up by God from being a shepherd to be a king over his people. I could not of myself anticipate such an honor, when I wandered in forests and wildernesses, concealing myself from the sword of my bloodthirsty enemies. But God and the peasantry of Sweden have been my help." Under the second picture—"I thank you, my faithful subjects, that you have been pleased to elevate me to the royal dignity, and to make me the founder of your royal house. I thank you no less for all the faithfulness of support you have shown me during my government. Grace and blessing are richly granted us by the true knowledge of God's holy word, and by that temporal prosperity which is before our eyes. If during my time I have been able to accomplish any good, give God alone the glory ! Wherein I have failed through human weakness, forgive me for Christ's sake. I know that in the minds of many I have been considered a hard king, but the times will come when the children of Sweden will be ready to raise me up out of my grave, if it were in their power. I know also that the Swedes are hasty to consent, but slow to examine. I foresee that many erring spirits will hereafter arise. I pray and exhort you, therefore, to keep close to God's word, show respect and obedience to your superiors, and be united among yourselves. My time will soon be at an end. I need no stars or other prognostics to tell me this ; I feel in my body tokens of my speedy departure. Follow me, then, with your faithful prayers, and when I have closed my eyes, let my ashes rest in peace."

In passing one of the streets in the eastern part of the city, the house occupied for many years by the celebrated theologian, Professor Oedman, who died about eleven years ago, was pointed out to us. The history of this man is singular. He wrote, in the earlier part of his life, a

work on the Natural History of the Bible,* which was highly extolled in a Review published in England, in the close of which the author of the Review says, "Would it be believed, that the author of this excellent work is-a schoolmaster, who makes a most scanty maintenance, on an island near Stockholm, by his humble vocation?" This Review met the eye of Gustavus III., who immediately made inquiries about him, and found that this man, who was living in great obscurity, was possessed of vast learning, particularly on subjects respecting theology. The king immediately appointed him a professor in the University of Upsala, where he delivered lectures in his house for many years. For some reason, more imaginary than real, it is probable, the learned professor kept his bed. There, lying, or rather bolstered up, in a half-sitting, half-recumbent posture, he delivered his lectures to his admiring pupils. In that posture he is represented in the portrait of him which is to be seen in the Academy of Science, at Stockholm. He was the author of not a few works, one of which was a Commentary on the Sacred Scriptures.

One object of our present visit to Upsala, was to attend a Temperance meeting, which had been appointed for this evening. This meeting was called in the hall in the old library-room of the University, and was the largest and most important which has ever been held in this city. Hitherto, it has been found extremely difficult to interest even a few persons in this good cause. Upsala is in the centre of a most fruitful district; and, unfortunately, the abundant productions of the earth, in the shape of rye and potatoes, are, in a very large measure, consumed in the manufacture of whisky, or what is here called brandy; and the use of this poisonous stuff, as a beverage, is universal

* This work was called forth by some questions which Michaelis and Niebuhr had proposed on that and other subjects.

amongst the male population. On this occasion, several hundred persons, chiefly young men of the University, attended to hear a statement respecting the progress of this good cause in the United States of America, made by ourselves, and a most masterly speech of one hour and a half, by the Rev. Mr. Wieselgren, pastor of a church near Lund, in the southern end of the kingdom, and the real Apostle of the Temperance cause in Sweden.

Mr. W. is one of the most eloquent men whom it has ever been our good fortune to hear. It is impossible to describe the intense interest which his arguments, his irony, his cutting sarcasm, and, above all, his affecting appeals to the understanding and the conscience, had upon some hundreds of young men, the greater part of whom had not the slightest sympathy with the speaker, or interest in the subject, when he began. Mr. W. is not only one of the most eloquent men in Sweden, but he is one of the most profound scholars of the country. Although a young man, comparatively, he has published several volumes—three on the literature of Sweden—which do him vast credit, and have established his reputation as a man of erudition.

When we visited Upsala, four years ago, it was to attend the Promotion, or as we call it, the Commencement, of the University. It was in the month of June. We reached the place in the morning of the day of the ceremony. Immediately upon our arrival, we were carried away to the old gardens and Conservatory of Linnæus, where there was a breakfast, of which some two or three hundred persons, comprising many of the most distinguished men in Sweden, partook. We were there presented to most of these persons, including the late Archbishop Vallin, and many of the clergy. After the breakfast, a procession was formed, and marched to the Cathedral, where addresses were delivered by many students, and the degree of Master of Arts was conferred on some ninety young men, who

had completed their studies in Philosophy,* by the placing of a crown of laurel, or other leaves, by the Promoter, on the head of each, and the repetition of a form of conferring the degree, in Latin. The Promoter, or President, for the occasion, is taken in rotation from among the Professors. On that occasion, the Promoter was Professor Geijer,† so distinguished for his History of Sweden, and other publications. After the exercises of the Promotion were over, the procession was resumed, and we marched to the New Botanical Gardens of the University, where some two hundred persons sat down to a sumptuous dinner, in the Conservatory. Music, speeches, and toasts, together with eating, occupied some two hours and more. Brandy and wine were drunk in abundance; and as the object of our visit to Sweden, at that time, was the promotion of the Temperance cause, it would be difficult to imagine a scene more discouraging to our hopes of success.

19th. This morning, at an early hour, we left Upsala for Gefle and Hudiksvall, the Rev. Messrs. Scott and Wieselgren being our companions. Our journey was now to be performed by post-horses, which the peasants are required to furnish. As we had brought a carriage with us, their obligation had reference only to horses.

Our course lay northeast for a considerable distance, across the fertile plains of Upsala. In all directions, nearly as far as the eye could see, the country was almost perfectly level, and covered with the yellow fields of wheat, rye, and barley. A part of the rye and wheat harvest had just been cut, and was standing in shocks, or ranges of

* It is only upon the graduates in Philosophy, at Upsala, that degrees are conferred publicly. The graduates in the other faculties receive them privately.

† Professor Geijer is reckoned to be the most distinguished literary man in Sweden in the present day. He is not only a profound historian, but is also a fine poet, and an excellent composer of music.

sheaves, in the field. The barley is now nearly ripe. We could not help admiring the good choice of both Odin and the first Roman Catholic Archbishops of Upsala, in choosing this spot as the place of their abode. All Sweden does not furnish a more fertile or a more pleasant one.

At the distance of about three English miles from the modern city of Upsala, we passed the site of old Upsala, which was situated more in the centre of the great plain, and, of course, further from the Lake Mälär. There are only a few houses remaining to show where this town stood, which, next to Sigturna, is the most celebrated in the early history of Sweden. All the country around is now covered with fields of grain. Among the few houses which constitute what may be called the hamlet of old Upsala, is a small antique church, the square tower of which bears every evidence of having been formerly a portion of a heathen temple. In this singular old church there is a statue of Thor, a son of Odin, and one of the Scandinavian gods. A friend of ours visited the church some time since, in order to see this old relic of heathen times. Upon entering the church, he asked the woman, who had opened the door, to show him the image of Thor. "It ought to be here somewhere, but I really forget where it is," was her reply. However, she went to rummaging among some old things in a corner, and shortly exclaimed, "Here it is," and pulled it out by one leg. An illustration this of the fate which is predicted of all idols: "They shall give them to the moles and the bats."

There are three remarkable mounds or tumuli standing in a row, at no great distance from the church. They are supposed to be mausolea of Odin, his son Thor, and his daughter Freya. The one nearest to the church is supposed to be the tomb of Odin: that of Thor is next; and that of Freya, who was the Venus of the Scandinavians, is the most remote. It was on the top of that of

Odin that Gustavus Wasa once stood and exhorted an immense multitude to embrace the Protestant religion. The people refused, and murmured, and uttered threats. Whereupon, the king threw off his robe, and declared that they might choose the devil to be their king, for he would be their sovereign no longer. "For," said he, "nothing satisfies you. If there be too much sun, you say it is because I have turned Lutheran; or if it rains too much, it is because I favor the new religion. So you may choose Satan for your king, for I will be your king no longer." When the people heard this they fell on their knees, calling him their benefactor, attributing to him their great deliverance from their enemies, and promising to comply with his wishes. Throughout the whole plain of Upsala the farmers were at work, cutting their rye and wheat, or gathering up what had been already cut. On every side the yellow harvest meets the eye, and its abundance indicates both the richness of the soil, and the goodness of the season, although it has been one of an unusual abundance of rain, as well as uncommonly cool. For these reasons it has been far less healthy than the summers ordinarily are in Sweden.

At the distance of two Swedish, or about thirteen English miles from Upsala, we passed a remarkably fine village belonging to Count Brahé, with which is connected an historical association of some interest. One of the ancient owners of these beautifully cultivated grounds was a lawyer of the name of Thorgny (Thundernoise), who distinguished himself by the boldness of his speech at a public meeting, held at the Mora Stone, in the year 1002. At that meeting King Olaf Skotkonung, who was the first Swedish sovereign who professed the Christian religion, though we fear he was rather a poor specimen of that glorious faith, demanded of the people their consent to make war upon the king of Norway, who was also a Christian, and a bet-

ter man, there is reason to believe, than himself. The people were not willing to accede to the measure, which they deemed either unnecessary, or unjust, or both. The king was very resolute in his urgency ; but it was all in vain. Neither the people nor the king being willing to yield, this Thorgny arose, and said that he was sorry to see the king so obstinate in his purpose to have war with Norway, when he knew that the people were wholly averse to it ; that it was very wrong and foolish for him to act in this way. Then, turning to the monarch, he addressed him somewhat in the following style : " The Swedish people have ever been distinguished for their attachment to their kings, and their willingness to obey them. Nevertheless, they have often given proofs of their determination not to obey them when they have demanded what was wrong ; and for doing which they have shut up seventeen of them in dungeons ! And know, O king, that we will not have war with Norway, and that we desire to have peace with thee." There was no mistaking the purport of this plain and decided manner of treating the question : the king comprehended it perfectly, and rightly concluded that peace with his own people was better than war with Norway and them also.

At the distance of three Swedish or nearly twenty English miles, we were fairly beyond the plains of Upsala, and had entered a country of a very different character. It was comparatively level ; that is to say, the eminences, which consisted chiefly of rock, covered more or less with moss and stunted fir or pine trees, were not of great elevation, but they were so numerous that it was rare to see even a few acres in one spot which could be said to be strictly level. The farms, or cultivated spots, became less and less contiguous, until in many places the uncultivated portions appeared to be ten times more extensive than those which were cultivated ; and this continued to

be the character of the country during the remainder of the day, or through a distance of some thirty or thirty-five English miles. The fences of the farms,—where fences existed,—were such as we described in the chapter relating to our journey from Gottenburg to Stockholm, and their chief productions were rye, wheat,—though far less than rye,—barley, peas, oats, and potatoes. In many cases, small patches of flax, perhaps an acre or half acre, and in a few instances, of hemp, were to be seen.

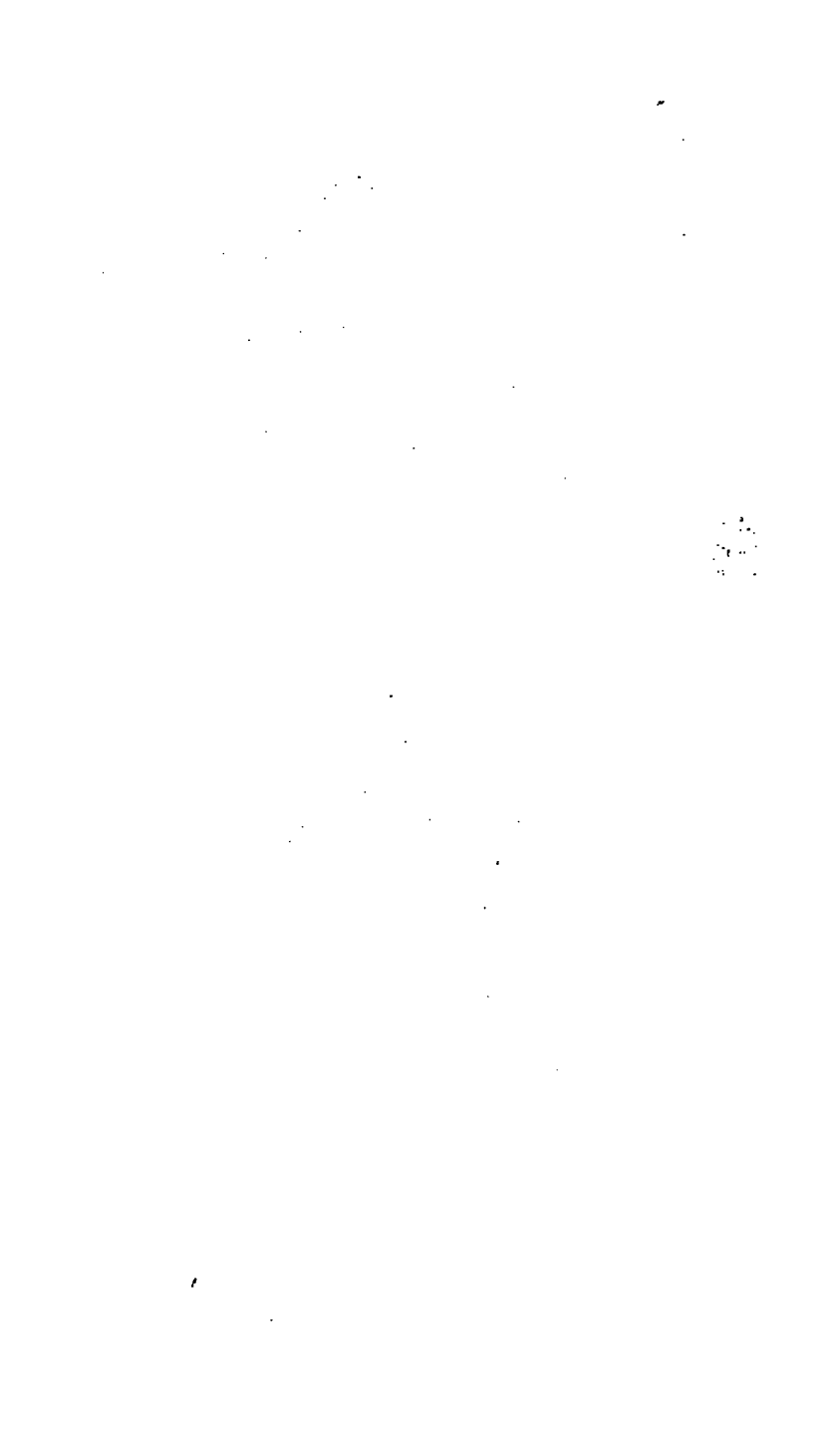
The farmers in Sweden seem generally to cultivate farms of very moderate extent, and each one endeavors to raise enough of almost every kind of produce to supply the wants of his family, and in some things to have somewhat to sell. The most abundant crops throughout the country which we this day traversed were rye, barley, and potatoes. Of these articles probably most of the farmers will have a greater or less quantity for sale. We were surprised to see the abundant crops of rye in many places, as well as of barley and potatoes. We could not have believed that the thin soil of this country was so fertile, had we not seen the luxuriant growth of these different crops. The wheat, too, was much better than we expected to find it so far north, whilst the flax and peas were excellent. Of hemp we saw but little, and that little was far from being extraordinary. As to the garden vegetables, they were abundant, and such as grow in latitudes so high. Much of the cultivated land is without fences. The meadow and pasture lands are separated by fences from the fields of grain, in order to protect the latter from the cattle.

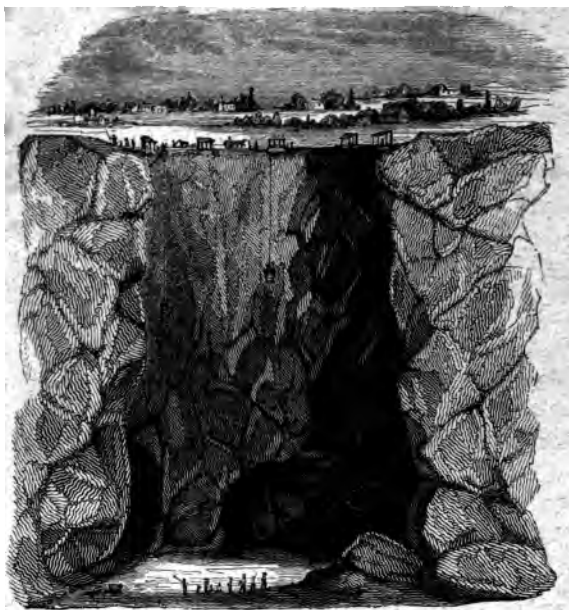
The roads of Sweden are kept in order by the farmers through, or near to, whose lands they pass. As in many parts of our country, an overseer is appointed whose duty is to see that the roads be kept in a good condition by

those who are appointed to look after them. There are no toll-gates, strictly speaking ; but there are many gates on the roads for the purpose of keeping the cattle from passing into the fields of grain, &c. These gates are generally opened by the children, who run to perform that task when they see a carriage approaching, inasmuch as they expect some little compensation for their trouble in the shape of the smallest pieces of copper money. It is merely a matter of custom, and not of law, that they receive any thing. Their kind officiousness saves the trouble and delay of the driver's leaving his seat for that purpose. The main roads in this country, so far as we have seen them, are excellent. Those in the remote interior, and especially those which are not much traveled, are not kept so well, we are informed ; and some of them are almost impassable in the worst seasons of the year.

At short intervals we observed what are called snow-ploughs, lying by the road-side, to be used when needed. These machines for clearing the road of the snow are very simple. They are, in shape, like the common smoothing-iron (or *flat-iron* as some call it) used in our country—that is, nearly triangular. They are made by uniting the ends of two boards of some twelve or fourteen feet in length, and twelve or fifteen inches in width, so as to form an acute angle, and by placing cross-beams of no great size, but sufficiently strong, at intervals, from one board to the other, those being short which are nearest the apex, and the others becoming longer as the boards separate further and further from each other. This simple machine is drawn by horses or oxen, after a heavy fall of snow, and removes a great part of it from the road, leveling the rest and making the road passable. The peasants along the road are obliged by law to perform this service.

The agriculture of Sweden is certainly performed with care, so far as we have seen. It is on a small scale, and





DANEMORA MINES.

This engraving gives some idea of the vast entrance into these celebrated mines. It is by a great chasm, or pit, into which men descend in a tub, which is let down by a windlass.

resembles more the garden culture, than that which relates to extensive farms with us. It is rare to see a large extent of ground wholly covered with one species of grain. Usually only a few acres are so occupied. It is a common practice here to sow a small parcel of ground,—say an acre or two, or at most four or five,—with rye, another piece immediately adjoining, with wheat, another with barley or oats, then rye again, and so there is quite a variety of small fields, or patches, covering a comparatively small extent of ground. The present season is one of remarkable fruitfulness. All kinds of grain have a most luxuriant growth. We have never seen better crops of rye, barley, potatoes, and oats, in any country. The abundance of this year will be most acceptable after the years of comparative famine which have preceded it. If the people will export their surplus grain to Russia, where there is said to be a scarcity this year, instead of converting it into whisky, it will be every way for the promotion of their best interests.

At the distance of four Swedish, or twenty-two English miles from Upsala, we came to the celebrated Danemora Iron Mines. The country in which they are situated is of the same comparatively level and rocky character with that which we passed through for the last few miles, and which prevails so much throughout all the middle and southern portions of Sweden. These mines are wholly subterranean. They have been worked from the 15th century, if not even from an earlier period. A village spreads over the plain where these mines exist, consisting almost wholly of the abodes of the families of the laborers who are employed about them.

The appearance of these mines, or rather the largest of them, is most striking. An immense excavation has been made down through the solid rocks, which are richly impregnated with iron. This excavation is of an irre-

gular shape. Its length must be near ten rods, and its greatest width not less than five or six. The depth is 88 fathoms, or 528 feet. Its sides are not exactly perpendicular in all places, though approaching to it. The irregularity is sufficiently great to make its appearance more striking. At various points all around the edges of this immense cavern, if we may so call it, are small, covered, framed platforms, which project over the edge of the precipice, and from which, by means of large tubs, attached to ropes made of iron-wire, the workmen descend. These ropes are fastened to a large wheel, turned by horses, and as one tub goes down another comes up. It is quite formidable to lean over the verge of one of these platforms and look down into what seems at first sight to be a bottomless pit. A misty cloud, formed from the smoke of the powder which is continually used in blasting the rocks, floats in the nether portions of the atmosphere of this cavern, and almost obscures the view of the bottom itself; whilst the forms of the men ascending and descending in the tubs in which they stand, holding fast to the three ropes which are attached to these small and apparently dangerous vehicles, seem, from their great distance from the spectator, like bees suspended in the air. The whole scene, to one who has nerves sufficiently strong to endure it, is in the highest degree, picturesque and interesting. Small birds, too, are constantly ascending and descending, and flitting about, as busy in their way, providing for the young that are in their nests, perched in little cavities of the rocks, as are the human beings whose voices, and the strokes of whose hammers, give an air of life and activity to a scene which would otherwise appear sombre, cheerless, and even deterring.

All things being ready, we ourselves prepared to descend. Placing ourselves in a tub which was suspended at the edge of the platform where we stood, and one of the

workmen having taken his stand on the edge of our floating vessel, the signal was given, and we began to go down. It is hardly necessary to say that the sensation, to one who is unaccustomed to this descent, is far from being pleasant. He is apt to have some fears, notwithstanding all assurances of safety. What if the rope should break! The thought is awful! And every recurrence of it caused an uncomfortable chill to pass through the heart. In a few minutes we reached the bottom, and set about exploring the region. We found many workmen engaged in getting out ore, which in this mine is hard enough to accomplish, for the particles of iron are interspersed richly in hard rock, and the whole mass is exceedingly difficult to disintegrate and reduce to small portions. Galleries, or excavations, in the form of a large avenue or arcade, are made in various directions, leading to smaller pits where men are at work in digging out the ore. A vast number of hands are thus employed. To create a draught and thus expel any noxious air or gas which might be formed in the mine, as well as to drive out the smoke of the powder, which is used in such large quantities, what are called air-holes are created, by sinking a shaft, as it is termed, or in words more intelligible to most of our readers, by digging a deep hole, like a well, down to the level of the mine, and at no great distance from it, and then making a horizontal opening or gallery from the mine to that shaft. By this means a strong current of air is created; and the smoke and noxious gases are expelled. From the larger mine or pit, we went into smaller ones adjoining. The view, as one looks upwards out of these abysses, is very striking. At a great height above, the blue heavens are visible through the irregularly-shaped openings or mouths of the mines, separated from each other by what appear to be natural bridges, which consist of vast arches of rock left by the workmen to protect the sides from caving in. Arches also extend to

arches, and so divide the upward perspective in the most striking manner. The huge size, the irregularity of shape, and the rough exterior of these arches, render them very remarkable objects; while the smoky brown atmosphere gives to every thing a lurid appearance which no one can have a conception of who has not been in such places.

For our special gratification, as well as to increase their funds a little, the miners fired off a blast or two to let us hear the tremendous roar and echo. And verily, it was tremendous, and such as we never heard the like of. All the artillery above ground which we have ever heard was as nothing in comparison with this subterranean explosion. At length, having fully gratified our curiosity, we prepared to ascend to the regions of day. Before we did this, however, the good Mr. Wieselgren delivered a Temperance lecture—where we fear it was but too much needed—to a company of miners, who collected around him. And truly it was the most picturesque Temperance meeting which we have ever seen. There stood Sweden's eloquent Temperance Apostle on an elevation which a little rock or a plank gave him, discoursing in forcible strains, on the manifold dangers caused by the use of ardent spirits, and depicting the blessedness as well as the safety to be found in the ways of a wise, that is, a total, abstinence from them. A crowd of men and boys surrounded him, listening with profound attention to every word he said, and regarding with due respect every gesture which he made. The attitude and movements of the speaker; his voice, echoed from wall to wall; the sombre nature of the surrounding scenery; and above all, the various emotions on the upturned, ferruginous faces of the auditory, rendered visible by the lurid light which beamed down upon them from the vast opening above,—all combined to form such a spectacle as we had never before witnessed, and such as we do not expect to see again. It was a scene that the

pencil of a Claude Lorraine alone could represent on canvass. After an abundant distribution of Tracts, to follow up and strengthen the impression which this address had made, Mr. W. bade them adieu. But his good efforts did not even then cease. As we were getting into our tub-balloon, and whilst we were adjusting ourselves as well as we could in its limited dimensions, our friend was holding forth to another company of workmen who had surrounded us. And even when we began to ascend, his discourse abated not, but he continued to announce to his gazing hearers the benefits of temperance, and making our person his text, told them that we had been deeper down than they, having come from the other side of the globe, where men, even miners, had found out that they could not only work without brandy, but be happier and better for it. At length we reached the regions above; and safely landed, we rejoiced to breathe again the warm, genial air, after the short but chilly sojourn which we had just made in the regions below, where more than the cold of winter reigns even in the middle of summer. We found Virgil's description of the descent into the lower regions inapplicable to that which we made, profound as it seemed to be:

Facilis descensus Averni;

*Sed revocare gradum, superasque evadere ad auras,
Hoc opus, hic labor est.*

For the ascent was quite as easy as the descent, and altogether more comfortable.

M. Marmier, in his account of the visit which he made to these mines, describes the miners as being a most unhappy race of beings. "They laugh not; they sing not. When I was among them, at the bottom of the abyss, a child of Danemora, which must, one day, labor as they do, and which had descended into the mine for the first time, sat on a block of stone and sang. He sung one

of the miners' songs, composed by a poet of Fahlun, Mr. Königsvärt. The workmen regarded him in sadness, and seemed to say to him, in their silence, "O poor child!" Without doubt, these men have a hard life of it. They must labor diligently to obtain the means of living and of supporting a family. And it may be that the nature of their work is unfavorable to health. All this may be so. But so far as we could judge from their appearance, and that of their houses, many of which we passed by in our visit to the village around the mines, we should be inclined to believe that they are not worse off, for the things of this world, than the majority of the laboring people in Sweden. And we are of opinion that if they will let ardent spirits alone, and properly observe the Sabbath, they will do as well as men who labor hard may be expected to do in any country. As it is, they did not seem to be particularly miserable. They appeared to us to be a cheerful, laughter-loving, industrious people. And as to their being too sad to sing, we know not how they may habitually do, but we know that *we* heard them sing. Indeed there were so many of them singing, as we were descending, that we thought there must be a sort of concert down amongst them.

These mines are celebrated for producing the best iron in Sweden. Their entire production is engaged by an English company, who export it to England, where it is manufactured into steel. The price paid for it by the company much exceeds that of the ordinary iron of this country. This is owing solely to its superior and peculiar qualities.

After leaving Danemora, we pursued our way to the north, four Swedish, or twenty-five English miles, and arrived, shortly after the sun had gone down, at the post-house of a small village, where we spent the night. In this part of our journey, and about ten miles before we

came to the close of it, we passed the village of Löfsta, where are works for smelting iron ore, and where there is a beautiful villa, surrounded by most charming gardens and groves. It is one of the most delightful spots in all Sweden. Although the ground is rather too low and flat, yet art has rendered it a most lovely place. The country, from Danémora, or rather from the plain of Upsala, is uneven, rocky, and covered, as to nine-tenths of it, with pine and fir timber, and a thick underwood, in many places, of small bushes. A considerable portion of the valleys and comparatively level spots, is marshy, as the drooping, moss-covered branches of the firs, as well as the ferns, and other similar vegetation, growing under them, indicated. The farms are scattered and small. They exist only where a valley, or an indentation of the country, has collected a sufficient deposit from the annual and long-continued decomposition of vegetable and mineral matter, to form a soil of considerable depth. In these insulated patches, or small districts, the crops are this year most excellent. In addition to the vegetables which we have already mentioned, we noticed that almost every farm had a small yard of hops. Some few also had little plats or patches of tobacco, which we have not hitherto believed would grow so far to the north.

20th. Having set out at an early hour this morning, we reached Gefle* about two o'clock in the afternoon, where we spent the remainder of the day amongst some very kind friends of Messrs. Scott and Wieselgren. At the distance of about ten English miles from that city, we crossed the very considerable stream of what is called Dal-Elfen, (the river Dal,) at the falls of Elf-Karleby. Strictly speak-

* This name is pronounced as if it were written *Yaela*, giving to Y, the consonant, the sound which it has in the word *yes*—and to a, in both places, the sound which it has in the word *paper*.

ing, the lower portion of the river Dal is called Elf-Karleby, and gives name both to the falls and to the neighboring village.

The river Dal is one of the largest in Sweden, and in its lower course it has many expansions, as have almost all the rivers of this country; into long and narrow lakes; nor is this characteristic confined to the lower portion of these rivers. The numerous branches which flow down from the mountains that separate Sweden from Norway, or from the elevated spurs of those mountains, also abound in expansions, and are connected with basin-lakes of various sizes, and many in number, which lie deep in the midst of the surrounding hills, and are the cool dwelling-places of the salmon, the perch, the trout, and other fish.

The falls of Elf-Karleby are next in importance to those of Trollhätta. The volume of water which is here rolled down into the estuary that puts up from the Gulf of Bothnia, and which receives it at the foot of the falls, and not far below the bridge which is erected at this point, is large, and dashes down the steep descent with much momentum. The lower portion of these falls can only be called rapids; but in the upper portion there is an almost perpendicular descent of some forty or fifty feet, down which the water falls in masses which present a slight resemblance to the falls of Niagara. But it is, indeed, only a slight resemblance. The projecting rocks, and especially the huge masses which lie just in the chute, or descent itself, interrupt the perpendicular fall of the waters, and destroy the smooth appearance and motion which they have in the first part of it. But they compensate for this in the indescribable and foamy confusion, tossing, and uproar, which they give to the waters in their headlong course, and from the tremendous agitation of which they seem happy to escape, and seek, as it were, quietness and repose in the estuary below.

The bridge which crosses the stream, at the foot of the falls, was built in 1816 ; its arches, which are formed of blocks of wood, rest on abutments and piers of stone. Abundant indices inform the traveler that it was built in the times of Charles XIII., and at the expense of royal, or rather governmental bounty.

The river Dal and its branches water the country of Dalarne, (or Dalecarlia, as it is generally called by strangers,) to which it gives name, and which is one of the most remarkable provinces of Sweden. The country towards the west, and bordering the Scandinavian Alps, is divided into deep valleys, which encompass the head branches of the river Dal, and which are separated from each other by hilly, or sub-mountain ridges. But in the eastern portion the country is comparatively level. The valleys and indentations of the land are fertile, well cultivated, and thickly settled. The population of this land of valleys is 133,895 souls ; and the inhabitants of this province have retained much of their ancient simplicity, and, like the Highlanders of Scotland, they think themselves of a caste considerably superior to the rest of the Swedes. They are, perhaps, the most virtuous people in the kingdom. They are proud of their ancestral recollections, and not without reason ; for it was here that the standard of Sweden's freedom from Danish tyranny was first set up, and around the banner of Gustavus Wasa her brave and hardy population flocked, and carried it triumphantly throughout the land. Here you may see, in all parts of Dalarne, men with their broad-brimmed, cone-crowned hats, small cravats, large roundabout coats, standing collars, and hooks and eyes in place of buttons, but covering a red jacket or vest with a thick row of bullet-headed buttons, shining as if they were pure silver ; small-clothes, fastened with goodly buckles, or garters, below the knee ; white hose, and large, thick-soled shoes, with

buckles, and the upper part of the instep turned over, in the form of a scroll. And here, too, are the Dalecarlian ladies, with their thick, heavy shoes, having the high heel placed under the middle of the foot, if we may speak a little in Hibernian fashion, with red stockings, short petticoats, parti-colored spencers, with white sleeves, and either a white sun-bonnet, or, what is more common, a yellow cap on the back part of the head.

The population of this country is too great to make a comfortable living from agricultural labor, for it is only a small portion of the land which can be cultivated. The rocks, with their scanty covering of heather and dwarf pines and firs, occupy all that consists not of valleys and indentations. It is greatly to be desired, therefore, that cotton and woollen factories should be established, in a country abounding in water-power, and in fuel for steam-engines; and where, too, labor is superabundant, and consequently cheap. Watch-making, and other trades, might be introduced, and would be, if the injurious restrictions on trades which exist in this country were taken off. Even as it is, many articles of handicraft are made by these people, during the long winters, for sale in the large cities. But this, though something, is very little in comparison with what might be done. Too many of these people, especially of the women, are compelled to resort to Stockholm to find employment, by which they may make a little money.

It was our desire to visit this classical land of Sweden's history, as we were now only 60 or 70 miles from the heart of it, and far less from the eastern portion of it; but our arrangements and duties did not permit it. We should have rejoiced to see the churchyard of the parish of Mora, and the barn of Sven Elfsson, where Gustávus Wasa threshed grain, in his concealment from his enemies, and which is standing yet, and in possession of the descendants of the

worthy old farmer. The copper mines of Fahlun, and the silver one at Sala, are objects well worthy of a visit.*

21st. At Gefle we parted, for a time, with a portion of our company, for Mr. Wieselgren had determined to make a *détour* to the West, as far as Fahlun and Mora, as he had resolved to pass the coming Sabbath in the latter place, and preach in the parish church; and afterwards to stand on the very tomb-stone on which Gustavus Wasa stood, when he, for the first time, called upon the Dalecarlians to rise for their country's deliverance from the enemy, and call upon the descendants of those brave men to rise for the deliverance of their country from a worse enemy, that had treacherously invaded it, under the name and the garb of a friend, and which is no other than the alcohol of their rye and potato brandy.

Leaving Gefle at an early hour, we pursued our journey northward, through a distance of 60 miles, calling, for a short time, upon some valued friends at different places, and arrived at Norrala at a late hour. The country through which we passed was of the same character with that between Danemora and Gefle. At intervals are cultivated neighborhoods or districts; whilst, at the least, nine-tenths of the country are not susceptible of cultivation, by reason of their rocky structure. We remarked also, that the further we advanced the more uneven and hilly the country became, and that, toward night, a mountain ridge of very considerable, though unequal height, appeared on our left, and bounded the horizon towards the setting sun. At some distance from Norrala we crossed the large river of Ljusne, one of the most considerable streams in Sweden, and which flows down from the mountains which separate that country from Norway, into the Gulf of Bothnia.

* The amount of copper raised at Fahlun is about 332 tons, and in eleven other places 419 tons, making the annual production of this metal about 750 tons in the entire kingdom. Of silver, about 3,450 lbs. are raised annually at Sala and Fahlun.

The parish of Norrala is famous for its great number of Bible-readers, (or Readers, as they are called by their enemies,) who are not a sect, but only a band of sincere Christians among the peasantry, numbers of whom are to be found in many parishes in the north part of the kingdom, and who seem to be the depositaries of much of the piety of the country. We saw many of them, and could only wish that their numbers were a thousand-fold multiplied, and that they might pervade all parts of the kingdom.

22d. Leaving Norrala about noon, we came on some 15 miles to the village of Njutånger, where it was concluded that we should stop for two or three days, and then rejoin our friends, Messrs. Scott and Wieselgren, at Hudiksvall, distant some 10 or 12 miles from this place. Njutånger is rather a scattered settlement than a village. It lies in a valley of some extent, stretching from north to south, and occupies a fine fertile and nearly level piece of ground, which is bounded on the south by a bay, which puts up from the Gulf of Bothnia, and on the north by a lake. The house of the hospitable pastor of the parish, at which we took up our temporary abode, stands but a few rods from this lake, and is separated from it by the road which passes by, and which leads to Hudiksvall.

23d. The Sabbath. How delightful is the repose which is everywhere visible in this little, secluded, mountain valley to-day! At ten o'clock the villagers began to assemble for worship. The church stands in the centre of the settlement. It is a relic of the times when the Roman Catholic religion prevailed in this country. It is situated on a little eminence, or hill, and is made of stone and stuccoed. Its walls are about three feet in thickness. Its roof is high and sharp, like all the old parish churches of this country, which were built four and five hundred years

ago. A stone wall, with high and heavy gateways, surrounds the church; and a belfry, or tower, stands at a little distance outside the walls of the churchyard. This belfry resembles several that we have seen in various parts of this country. It consists of four curiously carved, or rather shingled columns of wood, which are not perpendicular, but lean towards each other, and sustain an indescribable round edifice, containing two bells, and surmounted by a pear-shaped cone, all covered over with small shingles. The church retains, in the vestibule, a quantity of wooden images, which adorn one side of it, and which are the relics of Roman Catholic days.

The interior of the church reminded us of times long gone-by. It is long and narrow; an aisle runs down the middle, and there is a row of pews or slips on each side of the aisle. At one end are two galleries, one over the other, the pannels of which are carved and gilded in the heavy manner of the middle ages. In the eastern end is the old altar, covered with gold and silver cloth of a rich and thick texture. Above it is a cross with an image of the Saviour upon it, just as when the Catholics occupied it. Two wax candles were burning on the altar. The pulpit is on the side: it is small, box-shaped, and richly gilt. The front pannel bears a carved and gilded representation of Christ preaching to the people. The pulpit rests on the shoulders of a wooden image, purporting to be that of a human being, after the old Gothic manner. Winged little angels adorn the corners.

The first part of the liturgy was read by the preacher from the steps of the altar; and the remaining portion from the pulpit, after the sermon, save the concluding part, which was read from the altar. The whole service, including the four psalms which were sung, occupied a little more than two hours. The congregation, which might be some 300 persons, appeared to be very attentive to the

discourse of the excellent young man who preached, and who had accompanied us from Gese. We were struck with the decorum which prevailed among the peasants, who composed the entire auditory. The men were dressed in coarse but comfortable clothes, about which there was nothing remarkable. The women came all with handkerchiefs, mostly white, on their heads, two corners of which were tied under their chins, and the other two were left loose behind. Each one carried a psalm-book, a handkerchief, and a little bouquet of flowers in her hand.

As we approached the church, we found a large number of people on the grassy plateau, surrounding an open coffin, containing the body of an infant, neatly dressed, and on whose little brow flowers and the leaves of ever-green trees were strewn—sweet emblem of the innocence which mankind everywhere attribute to childhood, and of the hopes of eternal life, which can alone console a parent's heart in giving up his tender ones to the stroke of death. After the funeral service was over, all entered the church. The women then laid aside the handkerchiefs which they had worn on their heads; and now appeared one of the most remarkable head-dresses which we have ever seen. The back of the head of every one was covered with a nice silk cap, generally of black, though some were blue, some red, &c.—made exactly like the back part of the black silk bonnet of some neat young Quakeress of Philadelphia. This silk cap or bonnet extended only as far as the middle of the head. A white band of muslin, or linen, and in some cases of lace, one or two inches in width, bordered the front part, and reached to the sides, to the cheek and the outward corner of the eyes, whilst, on the forehead, it retired, by a graceful scollop, and exposed the entire middle part of it and a little of the hair above. We cannot describe the singular appearance which some 150 women, all dressed in this costume, and occupying one

half of the church by themselves, presents to one who has never seen anything of the kind before.

After the service was over, the handkerchief resumed its place on the head and all dispersed, walking away with a decorum befitting the occasion which had convened them. We were exceedingly struck with the simplicity of the manners and of the appearance of this secluded, and, we have reason to believe, very virtuous community.

Old fashioned and singular as are most of the country churches in Sweden, they have for us a wonderful attraction. They are almost all built in the same style; long and narrow, of stone, stuccoed and white-washed; and with sharp roofs. The belfry, or tower for the bells, stands detached from the church, and at some 50 or 100 feet from it. The old wall, too, which bounds the yard or court of the church, following the uneven surface of the ground and varying in height with it, with gateways which resemble in miniature a porter's lodge, having a sharp pointed roof wholly disproportioned to the height of the wall,—all this is so very antique that it has a great charm for us, and yet we cannot tell why. We suppose that this sentiment, like many of the agreeable impressions which external objects make upon us, is in fact not susceptible of any analysis, and therefore no account can be given of it, other than a statement of the fact of its existence.

We like to wander, too, in the rustic churchyards of this country, and read the simple words which affection has engraved on the monuments of the dead, and see the sweet borders of flowers, or of ever-green plants, which the tender hands of childhood have reared around the grave of a beloved mother, and which it often visits and waters and watches over. Sweet emblems these of hopes which death cannot destroy, and of that immortality which shall arise and flourish from the very tomb itself.

It is here that death, even now, is made to wear the appearance of life, and the grave to be only the resting-place of the body whilst it is preparing to emerge from its chrysalis state. How sacred the grave of a mother! Mother! Sweetest word in all our language, whether when first applied to the interesting being who receives her first-born to her arms and presses it to her bosom; or at a later period when she sits amidst a circle of noisy though grateful children, swaying the sceptre of justice and of love among them, and moulding their tender minds by the sweet accents of heavenly wisdom which fall from her lips; or when venerable in age, and mature in goodness, she receives the profound homage and the affectionate embraces of her grown-up sons and daughters. It is the influence of Christianity alone which can create such a mother, or hearts rightly to appreciate her.

There being no service in the church in the afternoon, a number of the villagers assembled, as usual, at the house of the pastor, to hear the Scriptures, or some other religious book, read and commented on. The weather being remarkably fine, it was proposed to hold the meeting on the high hill which overlooks, from the east, both the pastor's residence and all the inhabited portion of the valley. Thither we were all led, and clambered up the rugged sides of the mountain. The ascent was soon made. And there, on the rocks covered with white moss and the short heather, now bearing its sweet little violet flower, we sat down to listen to the words of wisdom. The scene was most interesting. We were on the very top of the highest hill. On the east, the eye could perceive the dark waves of the Gulf of Bothnia, distant some 10 or 15 miles. On the west lay, at equal distance, a ridge of blue mountains, behind which the sun was hastening to descend. Whilst, beneath us, lay, in the same direction, the valley from which we had come, with its fields, its

scattered village and its tranquil bay and lake, now becoming covered by the fast-lengthening shadows of the distant mountain. In little groups the villagers joined us, until the number reached to seventy or eighty. Then in an indentation or basin of the rock, they sat in rows rising one above the other, like a little amphitheatre, whilst the pastor read the first chapter of the life of Martin Boos, and commented on what he read. Some account of the state of religion in America followed, and was listened to with great interest. A prayer followed, and the singing of hymns, until the sun was fairly gone down. Then, from amidst the grateful salutations, and the universal expression of *Tack! Tack!* thanks, thanks, (for what had been told them) of this simple-hearted and excellent people, we retired with the pastor's family, and returned to their kind abode. And thus has ended another of the Sabbaths of our life; a day of happy repose, which though long, in this high latitude, has passed rapidly away. All nature seems to sympathise with its peaceful and holy nature. Not a breath of air is now felt at its close, nor a rippling wave appears on the lake, beneath our window, which lies like a mirror reflecting the shadows of the forest around.

CHAPTER XV.

VISIT TO THE NORTH OF SWEDEN CONTINUED.

Arrival at Hudiksvall—Great Temperance and Missionary Convention there—Proceedings at the Convention—Attended by great numbers of people—Town of Hudiksvall, how situated, its trade—Notices of the Provinces to the north and west of Hudiksvall—A Steam-boat runs up to Tornea at the head of the Gulf of Bothnia—An interesting voyage—St. John's day at Tornea—The Laplanders—Their mode of life—Their moral condition—Laudable efforts made by several young men to teach their children—Our return to Gefle—interesting meetings at Norralla, and at Soderralla—Rock from which Gustavus Wasa addressed the people in 1521—Gefle—Its population—Mr. Laing's statement—Return to Upsala—The country through which we passed—Swedish Posting-System—Its evils—Visit to the Cathedral of Upsala—A fine view—Return to Stockholm—Mora Stone—A hospital for the poor—A fine charity—A benevolent Nobleman.

AUGUST 26th. This morning, at an early hour, we left the hospitable Manse of Pastor Stålberg, at the village of Njutånger, where we had passed three days most pleasantly, and came on to this little city. On our way, and not far from Hudiksvall, we passed another of the many cataracts which are to be found so often along this coast. Indeed almost every river has one or more falls, and commonly just at the point where it joins a fiord or frith of the sea. The cataract which we passed on this occasion, is not remarkable, though of considerable height, because the quantity of water which descends from the little river of Iggesund is not great enough to make it imposing. Just at the point where the bridge crosses the stream, within a short distance from the falls and below them, there is an extensive forge and other iron-works, surrounded by a num-

ber of well-built houses, which form a very pleasant village.

This has been a great day in Hudiksvall; for it was the time appointed for holding a Temperance and Missionary Convention. A vast concourse of people assembled in the large church of the town. This church was formerly, as were all the old churches in Sweden, the property of the Roman Catholics, or rather of the State, but occupied by them as a place of worship, when that form of Christianity was the prevailing religion of Sweden. It is of great length, and considerable width. The height is unusual; and the walls, which are of stone, are certainly three feet in thickness. In ancient times in Sweden, men built churches with some expectation that they would endure as long as the world might last. To do this it was necessary to use substantial materials, and plenty of them. And there was certainly good economy in their doing so, if the object can be attained. And if it be not attainable, we really do not know where the failure will be less. Even St. Peter's Church at Rome has scarcely thicker or more enduring walls than have the village and parish churches in Sweden.

This church,—as do all the old churches in this country,—bears palpable evidence of having been once, as we have just said, a Roman Catholic one. The altar remains, with its ornaments. A cross stands over it with an image of our Saviour, of wood and painted, as large as life, undergoing the agonies of the crucifixion. The walls are adorned with two immense paintings of no great merit, one of which represents the scenes of the judgment—the righteous ascending to heaven, and the wicked descending into hell, where horrible fiery dragons are opening their mouths, and stretching out their claws to receive them. We wonder how such a thing can be tolerated in any church. The pulpit is on one side of the church, and

near to the upper end, where the altar stands. At the other end there is a gallery and a large organ.

The concourse of people was immense. The peasants from the neighboring parishes were present in great numbers, in their various costumes, the most striking of which was that of some of the females, consisting of a red cap, highly ornamented, which fitted closely the back part of the head, and in most cases kept up the hair. Some of the younger persons, however, let their long flaxen hair float down on their shoulders. A red spencer, with red or white sleeves, a petticoat striped with various colors, and bordered in the skirt with a red band an inch in width, red stockings, and shoes with buckles, formed their other habiliments. Their appearance was highly picturesque.

It was estimated, and we think correctly, that there were nearly 5,000 persons present, who gave an unremitted attention to the exercises of almost the entire day; for they continued, with the exception of an interval of an hour at noon, from ten o'clock in the forenoon until nearly eight in the evening. So completely was the house filled, that it seemed like a sea of heads. After a discourse in relation to Missions, there were three addresses on the subject of Temperance—one of which was an account of the origin and progress of that cause in America. This was the work of the forenoon. In the afternoon there were two Temperance addresses, one of which was from the Rev. Mr. Wieselgren, who held the immense auditory enchained during more than two hours. After this followed the taking of the names of those who were prepared to banish the brandy-table, of which we have spoken elsewhere, from their houses. Similar services are to occupy to-morrow, at the close of which the convention will adjourn. A large number of pastors and distinguished men from this region were present—among them was the Governor of the Province of Hernösand. A large number of these

gentlemen partook of a Temperance dinner together, at which no brandy dared to make its appearance.

This is the second great meeting of the kind which has been held in Sweden. The first took place some two months ago, at Jönköping, in the southern part of the kingdom, and was attended by a great number of people of that region, among whom were many men of influence. It is now decided to hold at least two such meetings, every year, one in the south and the other in the north, changing the meetings to different places, in order to interest as many people as possible. The adoption of this measure marks an epoch in the moral, and we may add the intellectual history of Sweden. Indeed no one can foresee or estimate all the benefits which will result from the waking up of the minds and the energies of the people of this land, by such meetings. The Temperance reform, important as it is, is only one of the blessings which will flow from it. It is fortunate that the Government approves of the measure. Indeed the Crown Prince, who is known to be remarkably liberal in his opinions, is greatly in favor of having the people aroused to think and act, to know their duty and perform it. Would to God that all the governments of this continent were equally enlightened and liberal! Could they but believe it, their safety and happiness are both to be found only in becoming so. The proper position for kings, in our days, is at the head of the progress which society is everywhere making, to direct its course. Those that do so act wisely for themselves, as well as usefully for their people.

Hudiksvall is a small, but pleasant town of about 2,000 inhabitants. A beautiful bay here puts up from the Gulf of Bothnia. On the northern side of this bay, and near the head of it, stands the town, on a ridge of moderate elevation and considerable width, which separates the bay from a small and pleasant lake or large pond. A canal

between these sheets of water divides the town into two parts. The streets are regular and pleasant. The houses are all of wood, and are painted, white, yellow, or red. It is altogether a very agreeable little city. It has also some commerce. Ship-building is pursued to some extent, but nothing like what it is at Gefle, Hernosand, and one or two other ports on this coast.

A steam-boat leaves Stockholm every week, and touches at Gefle, Hudiksvall, Hernosand, Umea, and other points on the western coast of the Gulf of Bothnia, as well as Wasa on the eastern, on its way up to Tornea, at the head of the Gulf. This voyage is a very pleasant one, and gives an opportunity to those who wish to go up to that very northern city, at the summer solstice (the 23d of June or St. John's day) when, from a neighboring mountain, they can have their faith confirmed in the truth of the Copernican system. For, at that epoch, the sun, to those who are on that elevation, does not descend below the horizon, but is seen to decline to the north-west, and verge more and more to the exact north, until it reaches at midnight its lowest point, when it is just visible above the horizon. In a few minutes it is seen to commence its upward course towards the northeast, and thus continues its glorious progress until it reaches again its zenith in the south. Even to one who is at Stockholm, at that epoch, the nights for two or three weeks are sufficiently light, from the refraction of the sun's rays, owing to its being so little beneath the horizon, for the performance of almost any business. We happened about that time, four years ago, to be going up to the Promotion at Upsala, and were obliged to travel all night: and we have a distinct recollection of reading a letter at midnight, with ease, even whilst passing through a forest. And the year after, at the same season, we often whiled away our leisure moments by sitting at the window of the house where we

stayed, on the English Quay in St. Petersburg, a city which is situated in the same degree with Upsala, and half a degree north of Stockholm, and reading until midnight. During that period scarcely a cloud was to be seen in the sky, which had, both day and night, that light blue which is peculiar to these northern regions at that portion of the year, and which is occasioned by the rays of the sun striking the atmosphere of that portion of the earth at so small an angle. Scarcely a star was visible in the heavens at night, and the moon, even when full, hardly formed a shadow. At that season, there is something unnatural and death-like in the appearance of things, as night sets in. Business comes to an end before the sun goes down, and all nature falls into stillness and repose, whilst it is yet light. And if you have been unaccustomed to such a state of things, you seem, as you pass the streets, whether it be of Stockholm or St. Petersburg, Hernosand or Torneå, to be in the midst of a city which is uninhabited. No living thing, perhaps, is to be seen any where, as you pass street after street, save some solitary sentinel, with his grey coat and his musket.

The coast above Hudiksvall, up to Torneå, is thinly inhabited, to a considerable distance from the sea. This is particularly the case along the rivers, some of which are the Indal, Angermann, Umea, Skellettea, Pitea, Lulea, and Torneå. And along the coast stand the important and pleasant towns of Sundsvall, Hernosand, Umea, Pitea, Lulea, &c., inhabited by Swedes and Finns. Colonies of Finns also occupy the extreme northern coast of Norway, and are in both countries engaged in commerce and fisheries. At the present time, and for a number of years, the settlements along the western coast of the Gulf of Bothnia are extending more and more into the interior, and even encroaching upon the wild domains where live the Laplanders. These colonists rent the

land from the government, to which it belongs, and cultivate it to as great an extent as they can. They live on fish of various kinds, meat of domestic and wild animals, when rye flour, the only kind which they have, is dear, they make much use of bark-meal, or meal made by grinding the dried bark of the pine and other trees, which they generally mix with rye meal, if they have any. It is said to be nutritious: but if kept any considerable time, it becomes almost as hard as a board. In some districts there is a kind of earth which the peasants sometimes bake into bread when there is a great scarcity of flour.

Flax is raised, which is spun by the women, and almost every house has a loom for weaving it. By making saltpetre, potash and tar, the people gain the means of purchasing some articles which they need, as well as of paying their taxes. If proper encouragement were granted by the government, if roads were opened up, and these colonists allowed to buy their land at a very low rate, and to be exempt from all taxes for some years, this population would doubtless increase very greatly. As it is, it has considerably augmented in this region within a few years.

The situation of this border population is remarkable. In some places the people are found in settlements where a number of families are near to each other. In other cases single families are on the advance, far into the country, and near to the barren region of the Laplanders, some thirty or forty miles from any settlement. Of course, many of these people are very remote from any church. And yet it is said that they almost all attend on what are called the full church services, that is, on the days when a sermon is preached, which may be, once in three or four weeks; for the pastor generally has several places of preaching in these vast parishes, and cannot be in any one place often.

er than once in a month perhaps. On the occasion when he is expected the people come from a great distance; for besides hearing a sermon, they have marriages or baptisms to be performed; they wish also to learn what is going on in the world, and withal they wish to exchange their tar, their saltpetre, their potash, their dried, or salted, or frozen fish, and reindeer's flesh, for cloths, for salt, and for other articles which they need. To accomplish all these objects requires several days. Frequently they must leave home on Friday, and they seldom set off to return before Tuesday and Wednesday. For their accommodation the church is surrounded by quite a number of small houses, containing, each, one or two rooms, which they convert into a temporary residence, and in this way they avoid much expense, inasmuch as they bring food for man and beast with them from home.

North of Hudiksvall lie the provinces of Hernosand and West Bothnia along the coast. Immediately west of Hernosand lies the province of Jemtland, or Ostersund; (which is coincident, or nearly so, with what in the old division was called Jemtland.) This is one of the finest of all the northern provinces of the kingdom. The people are both farmers and manufacturers. The men till the land. Rye, barley, oats, potatoes, peas, and flax, are the main crops; whilst the gardens abound in cabbage, beets, turnips, &c. A little tobacco is also grown in the gardens, or patches near them; and hop-yards, on a small scale, are not uncommon. Whilst, on the other hand, the loom is to be found in every house, as it is indeed among the rural and village population of almost the entire provinces of the north of Sweden. Even in all the middle and southern provinces of the kingdom, it is very often to be met with in the cottages and houses of those who live in the country.

But in the provinces of Jemtland and Hernosand,

there is probably a more general domestic employment of the loom than in any other part of the kingdom. A large quantity of excellent linen, as well as considerable woollen cloth, is made by the people; and besides supplying themselves with these manufactures, they have something for sale. The linen which is made in these provinces, and which is for sale in Hernosand and many other places along the Gulf of Bothnia, and indeed more or less in all parts of the kingdom, is of a very superior quality, and is also cheap. In consequence of their industry, the people, who are all peasants, live comfortably. The houses, and even the smallest cottages, are well furnished, and every thing has the appearance of comfort, and even of taste.

Immediately north of the province of Ostersund, and between the provinces of Hernosand and West Bothnia on the east, and the Norwegian Alps on the west, lies the country inhabited by the Swedish Laplanders. It extends up to the same Norwegian Alps, or mountains which separate Sweden and Norway. Beyond those mountains and skirting them along, between them and the Northern Ocean, lies the country inhabited by the Norwegian Laplanders; whilst adjoining both the Swedish and Norwegian Lapland lies Finnish Lapland, now under the sway of Russia. We do not know the precise number of the entire nation of Laps, or Laplanders, as they are commonly called, but we believe that they cannot be more than ten or twelve thousand. There are upwards of six thousand under the government of Sweden. Those in Finland can hardly be as many as five thousand.

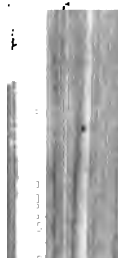
These remains of what was probably the first race that inhabited both Finland and the Scandinavian peninsula, and who were of the Scythian or Ouralian origin, are in every respect remarkable. The Finns are of the same origin, but their habits are wholly different, having long



LAPLANDERS.

A family of Laplanders, and their tent, &c.

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become a civilized and settled people. Whilst to this day, the Laps, whether found in the Russian or Norwegio-Swedish dominions, are nomadic in their lives and habits. The written languages of the Swedish, Norwegian and Finnish Laps, are fundamentally and essentially the same. But a considerable divergency has occurred in their spoken language ; so that the dialect of the Norwegian Laps so much differs from that of Sweden that it has been found necessary to make a translation of the Scriptures into their present spoken dialect. This has been accomplished, and the New Testament has been printed this year at Christiana. The Swedish Laps have long possessed the Bible in their dialect, in a large quarto form, which, together with a Dictionary, is published from time to time at the expense of the government of Sweden, a fund existing from a distant epoch for that special purpose.

The country which the Laps inhabit is of great extent, and consists of immense hills and mountains which run down as spurs from the Norwegian Alps. Very little of this land is susceptible of cultivation, and what little there is, is not cultivated, because of the erratic habits of the people. The country is, however, laid out in immense parishes, and pastors are appointed by the Swedish and Norwegian governments, for the religious instruction of the inhabitants. Little, however, can be accomplished in this way. The Laps are all nominally Christians, but there is not a little heathenism still existing among them. They are careful to have their children baptized, because the law requires this, and it is essential to their enjoyment of the most important civil privileges. But as to any accurate and spiritual knowledge of Christianity, they have almost nothing of it. They are extremely superstitious, constantly consulting omens, such as the singing of birds, the appearance of certain animals on the road, &c. In order to ascertain whether an enterprise will be success-

ful, or what days are lucky, they consult most commonly a small drum, which bears certain marks, and which they whirl round, and judge of the event by the mark that is uppermost when the drum becomes still. This is their favorite mode or means of learning the future.

Except the poorest of them, who are compelled by want to come down to the settlements, and resort to work as a means of livelihood, the Laps have no fixed abode. They live in tents made of a thick woollen cloth, both summer and winter. These tents are so arranged by means of poles and sticks, that they resemble in shape a sugar-loaf, and have a hole in the top for the escape of the smoke. In the winter they dig away the snow and place their tents on the ground, allowing the snow to drift around them, so as sometimes almost to bury them. Their food, both summer and winter, is reindeer's flesh, fish, and the flesh of the wild animals which they catch. Their riches consist in their herds of reindeer. Some of the Laps possess hundreds of these animals; and some even have as many as one or two thousand. The food of this animal, which seems to be absolutely essential to the existence of these poor people, is the white moss, which grows so abundantly on the rocks throughout all the northern parts of Sweden, Norway and Finland. The clothing of these people in summer consists of coarse cloth, which they procure by exchanging, in the nearest settlements and towns, the skins and dried meat of the reindeer. In the winter, they wear garments and boots made of the reindeer's skin. In both summer and winter, an under dress in the shape of a shirt or chemise forms no part of their wardrobe. They are horribly filthy in their personal habits, so much so, that it is extremely disagreeable to truly civilized people to come in close contact with them. The accompanying engraving will give the reader a tolerably accurate idea of their appearance when fully dressed. The men and the women

dress very much alike, the only difference being in the length of the over-coat or surtout.

They are generally low of stature, that is, about four feet and a half; though there are some who are five feet, and even more, in height. They are commonly thick-set, and heavily built, but not excessively corpulent, as some have represented. The most of the men pull out their beard, and so have smooth faces, and this too in a region where, if anywhere in the world, a good thick and long beard would seem to be necessary for comfort. Some of the old men, getting tired, we suppose, of for ever plucking it out, let theirs grow long, which, with its grey color, gives them a somewhat venerable aspect.

When they travel in the winter it is, as is well known, with their reindeer tackled to sledges. These sledges are made of boards, with flat bottoms, and usually three edges projecting downwards, so as to act as runners or keels. The shape of these sledges is almost that of a sharp pointed shoe. The fore part is covered, under which the Lap puts his feet, when, from the roughness of the road he traverses, he has no occasion to use them to keep himself from being turned over. The rope or thong of leather by which the reindeer draws, is attached to the upturned front point of the sledge, and thence passing between the legs of the animal, is fastened to the lower extremities of what may be called a pair of hems, which are on the neck of the animal. To guide the animal the Laplander uses a small rope or rein of leather, which is fastened around the head of the reindeer with a kind of halter. In doing this he uses a single line or rope, and throws it from one side to the other, for the purpose of directing it. It is not true, as some have written, that they use no rein or line to guide the animal, relying on the efficacy of whispering in the ear of the reindeer the name of the place whither they wish

to go. Certain it is, as may well be supposed, that no considerable journey is undertaken by them without a rein to guide the animal.

As a general thing, only one person rides in one sledge, unless it be when they carry their children with them. In that case, one or more small ones are placed in the forward part of the sledge, and so are safe from the danger of falling out. Sometimes several children are placed in one sledge, rolled up in skins and tied in, so that they cannot fall out. If the sledge turns over, as sometimes happens, it rights itself, and it is seldom that the children are hurt. But when they carry their children packed together in that way, they generally place an old careful person in advance, as the leader, who goes cautiously, and all the others follow in his path. In this way they travel about during the entire winter, which commences in November and reaches into May and even June. The snow commonly falls from the first of November until February, when it ceases, and lies on the ground in a hard state until the returning sun causes it to melt away. Its depth varies, in different seasons, from three to six feet, though it does not ordinarily much exceed three feet.

When the Laplanders wish to travel on foot over the hard snow, they put on their famous snow-shoes. These are neither more nor less than a thin, elastic, but tough board, of six or eight feet in length, and five or six inches wide, which is fastened to the bottom of their deer-skin boots. The under side of this board is grooved more or less, so that it partakes a little of the nature of a skate. With these snow-shoes on, and when the snow is somewhat hard, a Laplander walks off in great style. They serve him somewhat as Jack the Giant-killer's seven league-boots did that notable personage. They have been known to go with ease as much as sixty English miles in ten or

twelve hours. It is necessary that the snow should, however, have some consistency and firmness for the successful use of these shoes; though it need not be so hard as it must be for the reindeer and sledge.

The personal appearance of the Laplanders is far from being prepossessing, apart from the consideration of their want of cleanliness. Their broad faces and high cheek-bones, their projecting chins, their large mouths, and their wide and flat noses, cannot be reconciled with our ideas of beauty. They are not all alike ugly; Mr. Laing says that he saw some who were quite good-looking. Every thing in their temporal and moral condition is calculated to excite our pity. They are nomadic summer and winter. They stay no longer in any place than whilst their reindeer find plenty of moss. When they have eaten up what any given place furnishes, they snuff up the wind, and away they go to find food in another spot. Their owners must follow them. And so it happens that they may stay ~~five~~ or three weeks in one place, without removing their tents; or they may remain only a day or two.

The moral and religious state of these poor people has of late, as it has often done before, excited the attention and commiseration of Christians in this country as well as in Norway. As to those in Norway, we have mentioned in another place what is doing by a most devoted servant of God for their best interests. And in regard to the Swedish Laps it gives us great pleasure to state that the Swedish Missionary Society—a society formed within the last few years,—has sent some five or six excellent young men, as catechists, to instruct them. These young men, finding it almost impossible to do any thing among the Laplanders in their roving state, have turned their attention to the instruction of their children, whom they have persuaded them

to leave in Lycksele, and other border towns and villages, to be taught in the schools which they conduct. With this proposition, the Laps were, in fact, well pleased, for they desire to have their children instructed. But these young men find it very trying work to teach them. Whether owing to any innate qualities, or, what is more probable, to inveterate filthiness, the odor exhaled from the persons of these children is such as not only to be exceedingly disagreeable, but absolutely to render their good instructors sick; so much so that, however incredible it may seem to some, their health actually suffers from this incidental circumstance of their occupation. We are inclined to believe that, with the exception perhaps of those of our American Missionaries who are trying the experiment of what can be done by living with some of the western tribes of Indians, and wandering with them in all their hunting and other excursions, there are no men in the world, laboring for the salvation of the human race, who have more to endure, in the shape of trial, than these excellent young men, who are endeavoring to propagate the gospel among the Laplanders. It is from one of these young men that we have derived much information respecting these remains of the aboriginal inhabitants of these hyperborean regions. He resides at Lycksele, a small town bordering on the domains of the State which the Laps inhabit. He is at present on a visit to the vicinity of this place, for the double purpose of seeing his friends and of improving himself still more, under the instruction of an excellent pastor, for the work of his mission, so that he may preach as well as teach. Lycksele is 288 English miles from Hudiksvall.

GEFLE,* Aug. 29th.—After having spent two most in-

* The Swedes pronounce this word as if it were written Yavle, giving to *a* the sound which it has in the word *paper*.

teresting days at Hudiksvall, we set out on our return yesterday morning, and arrived here this evening. The distance from Hudiksvall to this city is a little more than ninety miles. The weather has been delightful. On our way back to this place, a continued series of Temperance meetings was held in the chief parishes through which we passed, and which had been appointed for hearing the eloquent addresses of Messrs. Wieselgren and Scott, and some information from ourselves in relation to the progress of the cause in America. And although this is the busiest season of the year, and the people, who are all farmers, are exceedingly occupied with the grain-harvest, yet great crowds attended at each place, whether the appointment was for the hour of six o'clock in the morning, or at noon, or at night. In some cases the people actually waited long—in one case fully four hours,—for our arrival, which had been retarded by causes not under our control. We never found so great a desire to hear and see. For, in addition to the attraction of Mr. Wieselgren's eloquence, which was sufficient of itself, they had heard that an American was to address them. Curiosity, therefore, doubtless had some influence in convening them. And we must say that it was not at all calculated to increase our vanity, to be told, as we were by an accomplished lady, of far more than ordinary information, that she had come many miles, with the expectation of seeing a black man! But whatever may have been the curiosity of some, we are satisfied that vast good was accomplished by the excellent discourses of Messrs. Wieselgren and Scott, and that their influence, at least in regard to some individuals, will far transcend the boundaries of this state of existence.

The most interesting, in some respects, of all these meetings, was that which was held in the parish of Norrala. It occurred just in the decline of day, and, in fact, did not

end until long after the sun had gone down. It was held in the open air, and the site was the gentle, sloping side of a hill, covered with a mantle of short grass. There, from the very rock on which Gustavus Wasa stood, in 1521, and addressed the peasants of Norrala, did those stand, who, on this occasion, called upon the people to rise against a greater enemy than the terrible Christian II. and his mighty Danes. Around, stood some twelve or fifteen hundred people, listening with breathless attention to the powerful harangue of Mr. W., and the addresses of the others who spoke. In front stood the Norrala peasant women, each with her head covered with a white handkerchief, bowed in front into a shape somewhat resembling a plain bonnet. Every thing in their appearance indicated the greatest propriety. Higher up, on the hill-side, and immediately back of the speaker, as well as on each side of him, to the distance of several rods, stood the peasant men, in their best, though plain clothes; whilst a number, who could get no better position, were seated on the roof of a low building which bounded the left flank. Throughout all ranks, the stillness of death reigned. Towards the close, the venerable and very aged chief pastor of the parish arose, and addressed the people with great animation. They were much affected by the sound of his well-known and thrilling voice, which, on account of his manifold infirmities, they had not been permitted to hear for a few years past. Prayers were offered up, and several sweet hymns were sung.

The Swedes are lovers of music, and they sing well; and never did music more deeply affect us than on this occasion. Whilst the sweet notes of the tenor arose from the compact mass of women who stood below us, and who, in singing, had a gentle waving movement, the bass rolled along the hill-side above us, from one extremity of the living mass to the other, like the sound of the waves of the

ocean, as they strike upon the winding shore. And it was not until the last lingering rays of the departing sun were almost wholly gone from the western horizon, that the exercises could be brought to a close. We then hastened to the post-house, took a little refreshment, and bidding adieu to the friends who there attended us, we set out for Söderrala, a parish distant from Norrala a Swedish mile, or six and a half English ones. But what was our surprise, when passing the rock of Gustavus Wasa, as our road led us to do, we found a large company of men and women waiting there, who immediately surrounded the carriage, and commenced singing one of their sweet hymns, and thus walked along by its side, until we approached the descent of a considerable hill. Here we rested until they had finished; and then, amid their mingled "tacks," (thanks,) and "farväl," (farewells,) we bid adieu, for the last time, as we supposed, to these interesting and pious people.

At the hospitable house of the worthy Prosten, or Dean, of Söderrala, we met with a most cordial reception, late as it was. This excellent man has the supervision of some fifteen or twenty churches in that vicinity. The next morning, at six o'clock, a very large congregation was assembled in the yard of the Prosten's house, and was addressed from the steps, which served admirably for a pulpit, whilst the area in front, bounded on all sides by buildings of one kind and another, formed the church. This was also an excellent meeting. We were here struck, as at Norrala, with the appearance of the people. These parishes are among the very best in all Sweden. In that of Norrala, about two-thirds of the people are reckoned to be truly pious; and in that of Söderrala, the state of the population is excellent. Never did we see so striking a manifestation of the blessed effects of the Gospel, faithfully preached, as we beheld in the assembled

inhabitants of these two parishes. Their fine personal appearance, resulting from cleanliness ; neatness in their simple, and even coarse dresses ; their serious, and yet pleasant faces, beaming with intelligence ; formed a most striking contrast with what we saw in some other, and not distant parishes, where the Gospel is neither fully exhibited nor felt, and where intemperance still continues to prevail. We could hardly believe that the people of these different parishes belonged to the same race. But they do—it is the beautiful adornment of righteousness which makes the astonishing difference. Indeed, we could hardly argue the question of the truth of Christianity more powerfully, with an intelligent and candid infidel, than by engaging him to visit the parishes of Norrala and Söderrala, and see the effects of pure Christianity, as exhibited in the words and actions, in the homes as well as in the public assembly, of the excellent inhabitants.

Taking leave of the good Prosten and his delightful family, and of some of our Norrala friends who had come from that parish to attend the meeting at Söderrala, this morning, we set out on our way, having three meetings more, and fifty miles before us, for the work of the day. The last meeting was held between nine and ten o'clock at night, at a parish distant some three or four miles from Gefle—where we did not arrive until eleven o'clock.

The road from Söderrala to Gefle, throughout much of its course, lies on a broad ridge of sand and gravel stones, of various sizes, which rises some fifteen or twenty feet above the ground, on each side. It is nothing more nor less than a former temporary shore of the Gulf of Bothnia, to which it is parallel, and from which it is distant some ten or fifteen miles. This sort of ridge,* which is found

* Hudiksvall stands on one of these ridges, and so does Söderrala, and almost all the villages between it and Gefle.

in many other parts of Sweden, is called an *ås*, in their language, and *aas* in the Danish, and is, in both cases, pronounced like the *os* in English, giving to the letter *o* the sound which it has in the word *go*. Mr. Laing is greatly at a loss to account for the formation of these ridges. But if he will visit the western part of New York, and pass along the ridge road from Rochester to Lewiston, he will find himself on precisely the same sort of ridge, and which is manifestly the former shore of Lake Ontario. And, if he wishes to know how the action of the water can form a bank of this kind, having sides sloping off at almost the same angle, let him extend his tour to the banks of the lower Mississippi, and he will see that the river, as it overflows its banks annually, elevates them in its immediate vicinity, by its heaviest deposit of mud and sand naturally resting chiefly on the first borders over which it is carried, as the waters wander away from the rapid current of the river. By this means it happens that the river elevates banks on each side that are not only higher than the river in its low state, but also higher than the country beyond. The ocean does the same thing in many cases along the coast of Holland; and helps the worthy Dutchmen to dike their coast. The drawback there, as well as along the Mississippi, is, that the water, in its highest state, often carries away, by its mass, the embankment which it has erected. This the good Hollanders see to, and, if possible, prevent. And here they find their work—here their labor.

As to the natural ridge between Söderråla and Gefle, and, indeed, along other parts of this coast, it often separates valleys or basins, and even lakes. That it was formed by the waves of the Gulf of Bothnia, and once constituted their boundary, is certain enough. At that time, many of the basins or indentations throughout this country were submerged, and the hills were islands. But how the re-

trocession of the waves of the Gulf was occasioned, is not so clear. The old theory, that the waters of the Baltic are diminishing by the accumulation of the sea in the equatorial regions, owing to the motion of the earth on its axis, or to some planetary influence, must, we think, be rejected. It is more likely to have been occasioned by the rising of the ground, which is unquestionably taking place in different parts of Sweden, as we have already stated in another place. Should this rising of the ground continue, it may happen, in a long lapse of time, that the zone of islands which now line the coast of almost the entire Scandinavian peninsula, will become hills, and the portions intervening, and now submerged, will become the valleys and basins of the recovered land. In that case, it may also be, that other rocks will elevate themselves, still further in advance, and become islands or islets, and in time be covered with pine and fir, or remain bare, according to their elevation or their shape. And who knows, but, by this operation, the day may arrive when the Gulf of Bothnia may cease, at first partially, and then wholly, to exist; and Sweden and Finland be territorially, as they were formerly politically, united.

In this way, it is probable, that much of our own country was formed, and especially what is now called the valley of the Mississippi, which is only the southern part of that immense valley which stretches from the Gulf of Mexico to the Gulf of St. Lawrence; and that the great lakes are only the lowest basins of that valley, and remain, therefore, as the last repositories of the stagnant waters. Perhaps they, too, may gradually diminish, and in the end disappear, from the action of the same causes.

GEFLE.—This is a pleasant and thriving little city of somewhat more than 8,000 inhabitants. It is divided by a small stream which here joins the bay at the head of which the city stands. The harbor is formed by a pro-

jection of the bay, into which the little river falls in its course through the town. The long peninsula between the harbor and the head of the bay forms a beautiful promenade, and is planted with rows of trees. Thither the inhabitants resort when they expect the steam-boat from Stockholm, or when it returns from its voyage up the Gulf, as well as to enjoy the fresh breezes from the sea in the hot weather of summer.

This town has considerable commerce. A very profitable branch of business here consists in building merchant ships for sale. They are bought by the Lübeckers, the Hamburgers, and the Dutch. Fifteen or sixteen have been built this year, or are now on the stocks.

This town is the sixth in size of the eighty-six places in Sweden enjoying corporate privileges, and ranks in importance after Stockholm, Gottenburg, Carlsrona, Norrköping, and Malmö; whilst in commerce it is the third in the kingdom. Of its 8,034 inhabitants, Mr. Laing, who applies a statistical table wherever there is room for one, makes the following arrangement: "there are 1,539 house-keepings, of which 120 are reckoned wealthy, 890 above want, or well off, and 529 in want. There are 13 nobles, 35 clergy, 60 military and 105 civil functionaries, it being a head town of a province of 95,822 inhabitants." We do not know how accurate this statistical view of Gefle may be in other respects, but it is certainly difficult to reconcile two of its statements with the results of our inquiries. And first as to the number of the clergy. Instead of 35, we cannot find that there are half that number, including pastor, co-pastors, assistants, and the clergymen teaching in the Gymnasium, and other schools. Mr. Laing must surely be mistaken, unless he reckons on this occasion, as he does on others, not only the teachers, but also the clerks, sextons, and bell-ringers (all of whose important duties

are performed in Sweden most commonly by the same set of men) as a part of the clerical force ;—to which we presume the Prosten and his regular clergy would enter a respectful objection. And next as to the 529 families that are in “want,” as Mr. Laing expresses it ; if he means that 529 families depend more or less every year on charity for support,—which we take to be the ordinary meaning of the expression,—then the statement is altogether too high, as his own account of the funds employed to support the poor in Gefle must demonstrate. For he says that the support of the poor of this town costs annually 10,000 dollars (we presume he means banco dollars, as that is the ordinary denomination of the dollar used in making accounts) or \$3,750 in our currency. But is it likely that so small a sum as this would suffice to aid 529 families ? Besides, we are assured by well informed men here that it is not the fact that 529 families receive charitable aid. There is here, as in all other seaports, a large number, in proportion to the population, of widows and orphans,—for the dangers of a sea-faring life multiply the number of this class of those who call for commiseration and aid. Still the statement of Mr. Laing is excessive, if we suppose him to mean that there are 529 families which receive charitable assistance. But if he means that there are 529 families who have not an income from funds or other property, upon which they may live without labor, then his statement is unquestionably true. But why should those who can and do make a comfortable living by their daily labor be said to be in “want ?”

August 30th. Sabbath. We were surprised to find that Gefle, with its 8,000 inhabitants, has only one large church, besides what is called the Hospital church. Now although the parish church is undoubtedly a very large one, and is certainly imposing from its gothic arches,

its highly adorned altar, and its gilded pulpit, yet it cannot contain more than 2,500 people, if so many. And it is manifest that taking the hospital chapel into the account, provision is not made for one half of the people of this city to hear the Gospel. The consequence is that many people, particularly of the poorer classes, are to be seen sauntering about, indicating by their very looks and dress, that they know nothing of the purifying and civilizing effects of the Sabbath rightly observed, and of the influence of the Gospel when faithfully preached.

At the close of the service in the Parish Church in the morning, Mr. Wieselgren addressed a very large congregation on the subject of Temperance. Afterwards he lectured to a congregation in the country, at the distance of three miles from the city. And again at 5 o'clock he spoke at a large meeting in the Gymnasium.

UPSALA, August 31st. The distance from Gefle to this place, by the direct route, is nearly 11 Swedish, or about 70 English miles. On our return we took this route, and left Danemora on our left hand. This led through a portion of the country more remote from the sea, and generally of a much better character than that which we passed through on our way from this place to the North. We were much struck with the obvious fertility of the soil, in many of the extensive settlements through which we passed. At the distance of thirty miles from Upsala we traversed the parish of Tierp, with its antique church of the gothic style, having a high pointed roof and four needle-shaped turrets, of a square shape, running up from each corner. The great extent of the rich plain, around this village church, reminded us of the plain of Upsala. The peasantry were busy in cutting their barley, having already got through with their wheat and rye harvest.

In all parts of Sweden which we have seen, from Gottenburg to Hudiksyall, we have remarked that the people

cut their grain, of all kinds, with a scythe, instead of the sickle or cradle. The wheat and rye they bind in sheaves, and collect them into shocks; but the barley and the oats are raked up as we rake hay. The women are at work with the men in the harvest field, and do the same kind of work that they do. We do not remember that we ever saw a woman handling the scythe until we made this tour. We confess that we have the greatest aversion to seeing females doing the work of the field. The most that we were accustomed to seeing, in our younger days, was the labor of females in making hay,—raking it together, in some emergency, such as the approach of rain, or the termination of the week. We have also seen them pulling flax. These two cases constitute all the field-labor which we have ever known to be performed by white women in our own country. There is something extremely painful in seeing women, as we have done not only in Sweden, but also in France, in Italy, in Poland, and in Russia, performing work evidently unsuitable to the sex, whose proper sphere is in the house, and in occupations becoming the comparative weakness and delicacy of their physical nature.

At the distance of about twelve English miles from Upsala, we passed through the parish of Björklinge, with its old church, which is reckoned one of the finest of the country churches in the kingdom. The parish is also a rich one. It is a plain of great extent, and is exceedingly well cultivated.

On this tour, of considerable extent, to the north, we have had an opportunity of seeing the working of the system of posting, or traveling by furnished horses, which prevails in this country. As there is nothing of this kind in the United States, nor indeed any other system of posting, we will give our readers a brief account of it. There are, by law, at certain points along all the public

roads in Sweden, what are called post-houses, which in some sense correspond to taverns with us, that is, travelers may find refreshments and lodgings at them. These post-houses are at unequal distances from each other, from one to three or four Swedish miles, or from six or seven English miles to twenty or twenty-five, according to local circumstances. These post-houses, in many cases, are the property of the parish in which they are located, and are kept in repair at the expense of the parish. In other cases they are the property of the persons who keep them, or of others who rent them to those who keep them. To these houses, as central points, the farmers, or rather the peasant-farmers (for we believe that the nobility who reside in the country are excepted, even although they may be in reality farmers) are required to send every day, in turn, a certain number of horses and small wagons, according to a list made out by the governor of the province. These horses, and the man or boy who is to drive them, must remain at the post-house a certain number of hours, ordinarily twenty-four, prepared to carry forward any passengers who may arrive, to the next post-house. For doing this they receive the small recompense of twenty-four skillings riksgälds, or about twelve and half cents of our money per mile (Swedish) or six and a half of our miles, for each horse. For the wagon, he receives at the rate of two shillings banco, or less than two cents of our money, per Swedish mile. So that a man may have a wagon and two horses and a person to drive, for less than thirty cents of our money, per Swedish mile, or more than six English miles. A fifth more is added for the first mile from every town.

But taking even that into the account, it costs only from a little less than thirty cents to a little less than thirty-seven and a half per Swedish mile, or six and a half English miles, for a wagon, two horses, and a person to

drive them. 'This is cheap enough certainly. In order, however, to make sure of finding horses at each post-house (for the law only requiring a fixed number to be sent there daily, if they should be all engaged, and on their courses there would be none there unless ordered beforehand) it is necessary to send on a man on horseback to order as many horses as you may wish to be ready at each post-house at a given hour. In that case the keeper of the post-house sends to certain peasants whose duty it is to furnish extra horses, if there be not enough waiting at the post-house. By this means the traveler need meet with no detention. This person who is sent on in advance is called a *forböd*, or courier, and must be paid by the traveler at the rate of twenty-four skillings riksgälds per Swedish mile. So that taking into the account the expense of the *forböd*, the whole will only be about fifty cents of our money for a wagon, two horses and a driver, for six and a half of our miles.

This is a simple account of the Swedish system of posting. It is certainly cheap enough. To be sure, the wagons are often no great things. They are usually a sort of rough light cart, of the plainest construction imaginable, and without springs. Sometimes, if the traveler be alone, he is furnished with what is called a chaise, but which is very like a small gig or sulky with us, save that it has no top or covering, and no springs. The driver sits beside the traveler, or stands behind his seat, and manages the horses.

The post-houses often furnish accommodations, but of the very plainest description. In general the beds are nice and clean, for Sweden is a country which abounds in good linen and the Swedish women are tidy house-keepers. The victuals which they supply are served up in clean, though very plain dishes. It is said that every man must expect "to eat his peck of dirt;" but we do not think, from the experience which we have had, that he

will be required to eat more than a proper portion whilst sojourning in Sweden. Sure we are that, by the above-mentioned measure of existence, he will live much more rapidly in Russia and Italy, and some other would-be-called civilized countries.

There are two very serious evils in the posting-system in this country. The first is the requiring of so many men or boys to be lounging about the post-houses, waiting for travelers, and so exposed to the formation of indolent and vicious habits. The second is that it often calls away the horses of a peasant in the busiest season of the year, and a person to drive them, for a very inadequate compensation. Even if there was no ground of objection on this score, there is something disagreeable in requiring by law, that is, in compelling, the farmers to be at the service or convenience of every traveler, whether they are willing or not. The whole system belongs to absolute governments, and ought to be abolished in free countries. If it were abolished, stages and other vehicles would be run by enterprising proprietors, as often as the amount of travel would justify. It would certainly not be so convenient, nor so cheap perhaps, for the traveler, but it would be more just and equal for the peasants, who have burdens enough to keep them down without this posting-system as an augmentation of them. At present there are but two lines of stages in Sweden; one from this place (Upsala) to Stockholm; and the other from that city to Gothenburg.

We arrived at this place to-day in time to take another look at the Cathedral. As we have said before, its exterior is not remarkable. The side portions, or what forms the side naves, are not so high as the central part of the building, and have the appearance of having been built subsequently to it. They are what would be called *additions*, in the language of some part of our country. But the

beautiful and grand interior one never grows tired of contemplating. We had no idea that brick could be so kind as to form such fine Gothic arches. Again we surveyed the monuments erected there to the memory of the illustrious dead, especially that to Gustavus Wasa, and the fresco paintings which represent some of his most distinguished achievements. We also examined the contents of the wardrobe of this cathedral. It contains the vestments which the clergy who officiate in this church wear on great occasions. They are truly magnificent; and surpass everything which we have seen out of Rome itself.

There are in the same room in which the robes of the archbishop and other clergy of this metropolitan church are kept, the clothes which Sten Sture wore when he was killed, in the manner which the reader will find detailed in the historical portion of this work relating to Sweden. There are to be seen the blood on his shirt and other garments. There, too, is an apron and some ornaments which once belonged to Saint Bridget, of blessed memory. But there one does not find, as some writers have affirmed, that delicate portion of Queen Margaret's wardrobe, called a chemise, and which, it is said, her soldiers on an urgent occasion, carried for a flag, in a battle in which they routed the enemy. And no wonder, when they fought under such auspices! That venerable relic is not to be found at Upsala; but we take the liberty of informing the curious that it is actually at Lund. We have this on good authority. But although Queen Margaret's garment is not here, the flag which she sent to her hopeful nephew, Albert, king of Sweden, in return for a pincushion which he had the impudence to send her, as a significant hint that she had better devote her attention to occupations more becoming her sex, than meddle with arms, hangs upon the walls. For she sent him a flag, as if she would say to him that he had better apply



himself to arms and defend his kingdom, and not play the fool as he had long been doing. The upshot of the history the reader knows. She put Albert's crown on her own royal head, and shut him up in prison. She was rather a hard character to deal with, and was rightly called the "Semiramis of the North."

From the elevated spot on which the Governor's palace stands, there is, we think, the finest view which is to be found in Sweden. The eye extends over an immense expanse of finely cultivated country to the east, the north, and southeast. Old Upsala and several other villages appear in various parts of the scene, in the midst of rich fields of grain, now waiting for the sickle, or rather the scythe, of the husbandman; whilst beneath lies the little compact city of Upsala, with its tiled houses, its Cathedral, its University buildings, and its Botanical and other gardens. The whole view is fine beyond description. We enjoyed it richly after the fatigues of a long journey, and just as the setting sun was casting his last look for the day, on this glorious scene. There, seated on benches provided for the purpose, we remained, alternately contemplating the delightful perspective, and thinking of loved objects and places far away, until the evening shades gathered around us, and hid from our view what had charmed us so long.

Behind the palace is a very fine large iron bust of Gustavus Wasa, resting on a pedestal which is supported by four cannons, placed as pillars beneath it. The bust was cast by Mr. Owen, who may be called a benefactor of Sweden, and presented to the city of Upsala. It is a fit object around which the students of the University may learn a noble lesson of patriotism.

STOCKHOLM, September 1st.—We left Upsala this morning at an early hour, and deviating to the eastward, from the direct road to this city, we came, at the distance of

about seven English miles from Upsala, to the celebrated Mora Stone (Mora Stenar, in Swedish), where the kings of Sweden were elected and acknowledged by the people in ancient times. The country around consists of cultivated fields, and forms in fact a part of the Upsala Plains. This monument of antiquity is spoken of commonly as if it consisted of one stone. But in reality there are eleven stones of various sizes, all arranged as they lay in former times. Gustavus III. built, in 1780, a brick house over them, which is stuccoed and whitewashed. On the top of it is a gilded globe, surmounted by a crown. When we first heard of this building having been erected over these stones, we could not imagine the reason of it. We very naturally thought that it could not be to protect them from the weather, for their adamantine nature would bid defiance to the action of the elements. But, upon our arrival, we soon perceived it was to preserve them from being stolen. The smallest of them may weigh some sixty or eighty lbs.; the largest, which is four or five feet long, a foot broad, and nearly a foot thick, may weigh as much as 300lbs. It is the only one which has something like regularity of shape. Each stone bears the name of some king and the date of his election, save one, on which are inscribed certain Runic letters and marks, from which it appears to have been placed as a monument to the memory of a father, by his son. It was found in the neighborhood of the Mora Stone; but why it is placed among the collection we do not know.

The largest stone is at the head, and in front of the door. It bears the inscription of Erik XIII. Just beneath the ceiling there runs around the entire building an inscription in large letters, stating among other things, the names of the kings who were elected at the Mora Stone, and the dates of their election or confirmation by the voice of the people, so far as they have been ascertained satisfac-

torily :—Sten Kil, 1060 ; Inge, 1102 ; Magnus Ladulås, 1276 ; Magnus Smek, II., 1319 ; Erik XIII., 1396 ; Christopher, 1441 ; Carl VIII., 1448 ; Christian I., 1457 ; Sten Sture, as administrator or viceroy, 1512.

The white walls of the interior of the house which protects these rude, but interesting stones, are almost covered with the names of those who have visited this spot. Of course, we were not unmindful of our own desire of immortality, and with due form inscribed our humble name among the rest.

The village of Mora is near to the Mora Stone, and the plain around is called the Field of the Mora Stone.

Throughout our entire course from Upsala to Stockholm we passed, at intervals, through much country which is fertile and well cultivated. As in all other parts of Sweden which we have seen, these fertile portions of the country were in settlements, some of great extent and some small, and separated from each other by forests of fir and pine which are not susceptible of cultivation.

At the distance of 15 miles from Stockholm we passed a very handsome establishment which private philanthropy has erected for the care of the sick poor of the parish in which it stands. It owes its erection to the liberality of Count Löfvenström, an excellent man, who is a son of the regicide Ankerström, who assassinated Gustavus III. The son has taken the name, in part, of his mother, and is no longer known by that of his father. We have had the pleasure of making the acquaintance of this excellent and unassuming nobleman, whose great aim seems to be to do good.

CHAPTER XVI.

MISCELLANEOUS REMARKS ON SWEDEN.

Rise of the ground in the Scandinavian Peninsula—Opinion of Berzelius—Professor Lyell—Causes of this gradual elevation—Proofs of the fact—Basins or indentations in the surface of the more level portions of Sweden—Their cause—Boulders—Granite—Gneiss, the most common of the primitive rocks of the Scandinavian region—Mica-slate—Transition rocks—Secondary formations less common than the primitive and transition rocks—Coal—Chalk—Mines in Sweden, their number and situation—Gold and silver mines but little worth—Copper a product of Sweden—A singular fact—Iron the most important mineral in this country—Cobalt—The botany of Sweden—The zoology—Scandinavian horses—The reindeer—The elk—The bear—Remarkable story related by M. Nilsson respecting a bear—Agricultural productions—Fruits—Climate of Sweden—Stockholm not a healthy city—Causes of this—The most important cities of Sweden—Commerce—Population—Financial state of Sweden—Revenue and expenditures—Norway sustains its own government—Pays a part of the salary of the king, and of those of the ambassadors—Currency of Sweden—Weights and measures—Navy—Army—The Indian troops—Meaning of the word—Invented by Gustavus Adolphus—Entire military force of Sweden—A beautiful custom—Sweden a poor country—Number of proprietors—Too great a subdivision of land in Dalecarlia—Causes of poverty in Sweden—Mr. Forsell's statement of the various classes of Sweden—Swedes not equal to the Norwegians in energy and industry—Distilleries—Dissipation.

It seems to be a decided question, in the minds of the Swedish savans at least, that the land in most parts of the Scandinavian peninsula is gradually rising. Celsius, a Swedish philosopher, advanced the opinion more than one hundred years ago, that the rise was equal to about forty inches in a century. Baron Berzelius informed us, that there is no longer room for doubt as to there being such a rise. He stated that Professor Lyell, the distinguished English mineralogist, had strongly opposed the theory of there being such an elevation, and controverted the facts

which were brought forward in support of it. But during a visit which he made to Sweden and the other portions of the Scandinavian region, the Professor became entirely convinced that he had been in error in relation to this matter. Indeed, the Transactions of the London Philosophical Society for the year 1835, bear indubitable evidence of his conversion to the belief of the theory which asserts such a rise as we refer to.

But it is now believed that this rise is not universal, nor equal in all places, nor even uniform in the same place. It seems, in general, to be greatest in the north, where there is unquestionable evidence that there has been an elevation of a number of feet, within two or three centuries. Opposite to Stockholm, on the Baltic, and for a considerable distance both north and south, along that coast, it is ascertained, by the marks which have been made on the rocks which were once lying partially in the water, that this rise is very gradual, and that it is equal to about four feet in a century; whilst in the southern part of Sweden, it is ascertained that there is no perceptible rise. On the contrary, it is certain that the land at the extreme southern end of Sweden has been gradually subsiding. This is clearly proved at the city of Malmö, where the streets are now found to be much lower than they once were, as estimated by the level of the Baltic. Indeed, some of the streets of that city are now below high water-mark. The same depression is noticeable in other towns and villages on the coast in that part of Sweden.

The truth would seem to be, that whilst the land is rising in some places, it is sinking in others; though the rise is more extensive than the subsidence. This movement is probably occasioned by internal fires, causing an expansion, more or less regular, of the solid portions of the globe's surface. This internal action may be connected with the gentle earthquakes, which have been noticed

within the last quarter of a century in many parts of the Scandinavian Peninsula. Whatever may be the cause, the fact that there is such a rise as we have spoken of, is no longer denied. Indeed, the remains of shells and other marine substances, which are found in many parts of Sweden, even at a height of several hundred feet, prove that there has been a great elevation of the land in this region. To maintain that the sea is subsiding rather than the land rising, is to maintain what is not for a moment to be believed, unless we believe also that a portion of the water which covers so much of the surface of our globe is annihilated from time to time. For, as water must find a level, where there is no obstructing cause, the diminution of the sea in the Scandinavian region, at any period, must have been accompanied with an equal diminution of the ocean waters on other parts of the globe, unless there was a corresponding accumulation of them, for some permanent cause or other, in other parts, which, it is well known, is not the fact, to any considerable extent.

The appearance of the country, in all parts of Sweden, especially in the southern part, and on the eastern coast, along the Baltic and the Gulf of Bothnia, corresponds, in the most striking manner, with the above-mentioned theory. We have remarked a hundred times, in our tours in different parts of the kingdom, that the cultivated portions of the country lie in basins and valleys. As to the former of these, they constitute a most remarkable feature in the surface of the more level portions of the Scandinavian Peninsula. These basins are of very unequal sizes. Sometimes, after having passed over two or three or five miles of broken, rocky country, which is utterly unfit for cultivation, and is covered literally with rocks and short and sparse forests, the traveller arrives at what is obviously a great indentation, or basin, of the extent of several hundred acres of fertile and well-cultivated land. There can be no

mistaking this ; it is perfectly perceptible to the eye. The ground is lower than the wild, barren, rocky country which surrounds it. It is, in most cases, comparatively free from rocks. We say comparatively, for rocks there are, of various sizes, which show themselves here and there, in the midst of the fields, meadows, and even gardens. These rocks, most commonly, lie partially sunk in the ground. But it is not a rare thing to see them lying on the ground ; and having every appearance of not belonging originally to the spot where they now are. Some of these rocks are very large. We have seen huge masses, as big as a good-sized house, lying in the midst of a meadow, and, once or twice, just beside the house of a farmer, and having such a shape and position as to convince us that they had been brought there by some powerful natural cause. These are what are called *boulders* by the geologists, or masses of rocks, which have been carried far from their original location. Such insulated rocks are not only seen in the Scandinavian peninsula, but also in Denmark, and in the northern portions of Germany and of Poland, where there is little or no indigenous rock on the surface of the ground. They are found in the northern parts of Russia, and abundantly in Finland.

Now the configuration, as well as the existence of these basins, or indentations, proves that the surface of Sweden was formed by the rising of the ground, perhaps from beneath the waters which then spread over what is now the land, and afterwards receiving, from time to time, a greater elevation. At first, it may be, only naked rocks appeared above the surface of the water, as one sees in the outward islands of the zone which encircles the coast of the entire Scandinavian peninsula. After a while, not only the rocky masses rose above the water, but the intervening spaces appeared above them, and thus the valleys and basins would be seen. In process of time, by the collection of

the abraded parts of the rocks, and ultimately of the vegetable matter which might be found on the more elevated parts, as well as by the annual decay of their own vegetation, these valleys and basins would come to have a rich soil, and one susceptible of profitable cultivation.

We have spoken, in what we have said of both Sweden and Norway, as if granite was the prevailing rock of these countries. This is not exactly correct. Granite is to be found in all parts of the Scandinavian peninsula, but not in very great quantities. In fact, gneiss is that species of the primitive rock which is the most prevalent in the entire region. It is most generally stratified, and highly so; and deposits, or beds, of fine white granular marble, or limestone, and hornblende, are often found inclosed in the gneiss of this country. After gneiss, mica-slate is the most extensively diffused, and is often interstratified with it. There is, however, much less of this species of rock than of gneiss. It abounds in many of the islands on the coast of Norway, and of the mountains in the interior. Snæhätten, one of the loftiest, is composed of this rock. With these primitive rocks are associated, in many places, strata of quartz, clay-slate, chlorite-slate, and hornblende-slate.

The rocks of the transition species abound most in the southern portions of the Scandinavian peninsula, and especially in Sweden. In the north, they are often found lying between the primitive rocks, as if they were wedged in. The hill of Kinnekulle, on the shore of Lake Wener, is of trap-rock. Sandstone, limestone, slate-clay, and others of this class are found in many places, and rest upon gneiss and other primitive rocks.

The secondary formations are far less widely distributed in the Scandinavian peninsula than the two older classes. They are to be found chiefly in the southern extremity of Sweden. Coal exists, at a considerable depth, in the

neighborhood of Helsingborg, and also in the island of Bornholm. But it may be said that Scandinavia is greatly wanting in this important species of the secondary formations. Limestone is found, in great quantities, in the island of Gothland. Chalk deposits abound most in the southern part of the peninsula, and especially in Scania.

From the days of old, the Scandinavian peninsula has been famous for its mineral wealth. And though this branch of the national industry does not occupy so exclusive a position as it once did, it is still very important, as is shown by the number of people who derive their support from the mines. This number, in Sweden alone, was, in 1795, 49,057, including men, women, and children. In 1815, it was only 14,000; whilst, at present, it is supposed to be, at least, 35,000. It is remarkable, that in Sweden, the mines chiefly occupy the central parts of the country. Out of 586, no fewer than 361 are to be found in Wermeland, Nerike, Westmania, and the southern part of Dalecarlia.

There are no gold mines at present in operation in Norway, and only one in Sweden—that at Fahlun, where the produce is very insignificant, as it was, in 1831, only 4.1 pounds, and worth about 680 of our dollars. But the silver mines are more productive, in both Norway and Sweden. We have already spoken of the mine at Kongsberg, in the former kingdom, where large masses of ore, in a very pure state, are sometimes found, and of the amount of its product. The silver mines of Sweden are of very little worth. The most important is that at Sala, where only about 2,500 pounds are annually obtained, which are worth about \$20,000. Formerly, ten times as much was obtained at this mine.

Copper is found in many places in Sweden, but is not as extensively wrought as formerly. The most celebrated mine is at Fahlun. It was worked previously to the Chris-

tian era, it is believed. This mine is very deep, being about 1,240 feet. The upper part is in the shape of an inverted cone, and resembles a crater. At the bottom of this excavation, a shaft is sunk 1,000 feet more, and then galleries run out in various directions. There have been great catastrophes in this mine, from the caving in of its sides and covering. In the year 1719, on opening one of the vaults or galleries which had been long covered up, the body of a young man was found, in a state of perfect preservation, through the effect of the alkaline water in which it was. His face had the bloom of youth. It is said that an old woman of the neighborhood recognized in him her affianced lover, who had disappeared from home fifty years before, without any one knowing what had become of him. He was buried with great ceremony. The whole amount of copper produced in the kingdom in 1824, was about 814 tons; and its value was 794,436 rix dollars-banco, or 258,885 American dollars.

But iron is the most important of all the mineral productions of the Scandinavian peninsula. A good deal is made at different places in Norway. There is scarcely a province in Sweden in which iron ore is not found. The mine of Danemora we have already spoken of. It was originally a silver mine. The ore, when smelted, has much of the appearance of silver, and yields 60 per cent. of iron, celebrated throughout the world for its excellent quality, which some attribute to calc-spar, with which it is associated. The province of Wermeland is perforated, as it were, everywhere with iron mines. The quantity of iron annually produced in Sweden has been gradually increasing of late. In 1830, it was 53,216 tons. It is now about 60,000 tons. It varies much, however, from year to year. In 1815, for instance, it amounted to no less than 67,680 tons.* In the extreme north of Sweden, in Lulea

* Forsell, Statistik, p. 133.

Lappmark, is the mountain of Gellivara, which is 1,800 feet high, and, it is said, consists wholly of excellent iron-ore, which yields 70 or 80 per cent. But this mine is so far to the north, in a district almost uninhabitable, and so remote from the sea, that its value is not yet considered to be great. About 350,000 pounds of cobalt are obtained in the Scandinavian peninsula annually. It is mostly sent to England, and yields about \$500,000.

The Botany of Scandinavia is more extensive than one would expect it to be; and has been well explored from the days of Linnæus to the present time. But it is not to be compared with that of many other countries for those things which would interest a general reader. The cold blasts of the north are too powerful to permit the vegetable world to assume those splendid forms which captivate the fancy in the more luxuriant regions of the temperate, and especially the torrid zone.

But the Zoology of these regions is more interesting. Linnæus has described 2,266 species of animals, which inhabit Scandinavia. But subsequent inquiries have greatly increased the number. Of the domestic animals we need say nothing, save that the horses, though small, are famous for sure-footedness. This is especially the case with those of Norway. In Lapland, the reindeer is every thing to the poor inhabitants. They are domesticated—though there are some wild ones still to be found. The poorest Laplander has usually from 50 to 200 of these useful animals; the middling classes have from 300 to 600; and the richest people from 1,000 to 2,000. They are about four feet high, and four or five long. Their color is grey or dark—dark when they have their new coats, and becoming lighter afterwards. Their hoofs are widely separated, so that they spread greatly, and cover much surface; thus enabling them to walk better on the frozen snow. When they lift up the foot, the hoofs, coming

together, make a singular clacking noise. A peculiar nictitating membrane covers their eyes, so as to protect them from the snow. Their horns are not as great as those of the common deer of our forests. They eat leaves and buds of trees, and the white moss of the rocks. They also eat frogs, snakes, and the lemmings, an animal of the size of a rat—at least, so say Cuvier and others.

The most noted of the wild animals of the Scandinavian peninsula are the bear, the badger, the wolf, the fox, the lynx, and the elk. The last named animal is not abundant, but is the noblest, as it regards size; often reaching seven or eight feet in height. But the bear deserves the most notice, for his daring feats. He is usually of a dark-brown color, though sometimes he is black, or grey, and even white; and when young, has not unfrequently a white ring round his neck. He grows till he is twenty years old, and lives till he is fifty. Wonderful are the stories which are told of the doings of this animal. M. Nilsson relates that one has been seen walking on his hind feet along a tree, which stretched across a small river, bearing a dead horse in his paws! It must have been, we are inclined to think, a rather small horse; and even then, Bruin had need to possess a greater degree of strength than ordinarily falls to his species. Pontoppidan, who, although a bishop, was amazingly fond of the marvellous, is not wanting in that quality, when he comes to speak of the bear of his country. But we have no time to go with him into this subject. The birds, the fish, and the insects of Scandinavia, we must pass over in silence.

We have spoken, in one place and another, a good deal respecting the agricultural productions of Sweden, and therefore need say but little in this portion of our work. Wheat grows well in the southern part of Sweden; it does tolerably well even as far as Gefle. Rye is cultivated up as far as the sixty-third, and even the sixty-fourth de-

gree of latitude. But north of sixty-two, it is far from being a sure crop. If we take five consecutive seasons, we shall find, even in latitude sixty-two, that in two the crops will fail, in two more they will be only moderately good, whilst in one they will be very good. The potato grows well in the Scandinavian peninsula. It may be found as far north as any other vegetable that is worth cultivating. Oats and barley are much cultivated. Hemp, and especially flax, is extensively raised for domestic manufacture by the farmers in Sweden. The fruits are such as those which we have spoken of as growing in Norway, in the same parallels of latitude. Apples, and pears, and plums, grow pretty well in the south. Peaches do not succeed well, even in the southern part of the country. The wild berries, such as strawberries, blackberries, &c., grow abundantly in the southern and middle parts of the kingdom.

The climate of Sweden is less mild, especially in the northern part, than that of Norway within the same parallels. This is owing to the fact that Norway borders on the North Sea, or more properly on the Northern Atlantic; and the western winds, which prevail during the greater part of the year, are rendered more genial by their sweeping across the sea. In their onward progress they become chilled in winter, by their passage over the snows of the Norwegian Alps.

But although the climate of Sweden is a cold one, it cannot be said to be unhealthy. On the contrary, few countries suffer less from epidemic diseases. The city of Stockholm is, perhaps, the least healthy of all the cities in the kingdom. Several reasons may be assigned for the prevalence of so much mortality there. One is the dissipation which obtains amongst the higher and lower classes. Another is the unseasonable hours which the higher classes keep, especially in going into company.

There are some indulgences to which the fashionable people are addicted which are in many respects very unfavorable to health. One is the eating of late supper. Few practices could be worse for health, especially when brandy forms a part of the unseasonable repast. But it must be admitted that the position of Stockholm, however pleasant and romantic, is, from its nature, an unhealthy one. It stands just at the lower end of a lake, and at the head of a bay, which may be compared to two funnels with their small ends united. The consequence is that there is a powerful and perpetual draught of air, circulating through the streets; for the wind either blows down the lake, or up the bay. We were never in a city where the currents of air were so strong. This is bad for the health of the inhabitants.

We have spoken of Stockholm and Gottenburg. The other chief cities and towns are Helsingborg, Landskrona, Malmö, Lund (which contains a fine Cathedral and a University), Ystad, Carlskrona (the chief naval station of Sweden, and possessing a fine harbor), Wisby in Gothland, Linköping, Norrköping, Söderköping, Örebro, Carlstad, Westeraas, and Upsala; all of which are in the southern and middle parts of the kingdom. In the northern, there are, on the Gulf of Bothnia, Gefle, Hudiksvall, Sundsvall, Hernösand, and Umeå; and Fahlun in the interior. Next to Stockholm, Gottenburg, Gefle, and Carlskrona, are the most important cities. Gottenburg has considerable commerce. A vast amount of the iron-trade centres there.

The population of Sweden in 1830, was 2,871,252. It is at present estimated to be 3,125,000. In the year 1800, it was 2,347,000, in 1830, (as we have just stated,) it was 2,871,252, which shows a gain in 30 years of 524,252.

There are many things in the geographical position

and character of Sweden which are calculated to make the people of that country a commercial nation. It abounds in lakes, fiords, rivers, and harbors, so that internal communication, for so large a country, is extensive and convenient. Sweden has iron, copper, timber, pitch, potash, flax, hemp, oil, fish, anchors and cordage, and some other articles for exportation. On the contrary, she needs the productions of many other countries. She must have coffee, tea, wine, manufactures of almost all kinds, especially those in cotton and woollen, and tropical fruits. She has always received from Finland, much of the bread-stuffs that she consumes. In the fourteenth century, the kingdom possessed only about 200 vessels; in 1800, she had 1,224; and in 1831, the number increased to 2,450. The total value of the exports in 1831 was reckoned at 13,564,618 rix-dollars banco, or \$5,086,731; the imports at 12,302,682, or \$4,613,505. Both have increased considerably since that date, the former being now more than 14,000,000 rix-dollars banco, and the latter nearly 13,000,000.

There is hardly a country in Europe in so good a financial condition as Sweden; or rather, there is none at all, save Norway, which is a constituent part of the same united kingdom to which Sweden belongs. She now enjoys the happiness of having no national debt. From this burden, which was so great as to threaten her ruin at the close of her last war with Russia, she has become delivered through the wise and good administration of her present enlightened monarch. Not only so; great encouragement has also, in the meanwhile, been extended to every branch of the public industry. The budget of the expenditures of the government in 1830 was 11,249,984 rix-dollars banco, the items of which were as follows: The Court, 730,470; Civil Department, 2,341,368; Army, 4,374,165; Navy, 1,653,262; Fine Arts and the Promo-

tion of Science, 27,116; Beneficent Institutions, 149,341; Pensions, 63,000; Miscellaneous, 717,343; Agriculture and Commerce, 157,994; Religious Worship and Public Instruction, 675,266; Temporary Pensions, 360,559:—Total 11,249,984. The gross Income or Revenue was 19,465,970 rix-dollars. Of this sum the land-tax produced 12,622,621 rix-dollars; tax on property in the cities and towns, 1,862,149; customs (about), 2,800,000; Post-office, 350,560; and the remainder was from stamps, brandy, and other imports. Considering the poverty of the country, this revenue is enormous. The entire produce of the kingdom is calculated by Forsell at about 100,000,000 rix-dollars banco, of which 45,000,000 are contributed by the land; so that the taxes in this country amount to nearly one-fifth part of the whole national income,—and, it is believed, to no less than one-nineteenth of the capital of the country. This is a much heavier burden, relatively, than either France or England supports.

This statement refers to 1830; but it does not differ much from that of the year 1840. We have given it because it is more detailed than those of subsequent years which have come to our hand. The national debt has been greatly reduced, however, since 1830, and may in point of fact be considered extinct. Consequently there is not so great a difference between the income and the expenses of the government at this time as there was then, for in the statement above given for that year, the amount set aside for the sinking fund, or for the extinguishment of the national debt, is not included.

We ought to remark that Norway bears no part of the expenses of the Swedish Government properly so called. That portion of the united kingdom manages its own affairs, bears its own expenses, and contributes nothing towards the expense of the united kingdom, save its share of the king's salary, and of the salaries of the Ambassadors.

The currency of Sweden consists almost wholly of paper money, of which there are two sorts, Banco and Riksgäld; the former issued by the National Bank, and the latter by the Riksgäld or Government Bank. The Banco is reckoned to be 50 per cent more valuable than the Riksgäld. Both the Banco dollar and the Riksgäld are divided into 48 skillings, each of which is equal to 12 rundstycken or ore. The Banco dollar we have estimated to be worth about $37\frac{1}{2}$ cents of our money. It varies, of course, with the exchange. It is sometimes not worth more than 35 cents; whilst the Riksgäld dollar is usually equivalent to 24 or 25 cents of our money. Both Banco and Riksgäld dollars are a depreciated currency. They were originally equal in worth to the Swedish specie dollar, which does not differ very much in value from the Spanish dollar, we believe, but how much precisely we cannot say.

Before we pass from this topic we may state that the Swedish commercial pound is rather less than the avoirdupois pound; and that they use what they call the victualie pound, 20 of which make 1 lispund, and 20 lispunds make one skippund. The Swedish metal weight is $4\frac{1}{5}$ ths of the victualie weight. The chief liquid measure is the kanna, which is 57.58 parts of the English imperial gallon, or in other words 100 kannor (the plural of kanna) are equal to 57 gallons and 58 hundredths of a gallon. The tunna, used for measuring grain, contains 4.53 English bushels. The Swedish ell of 2 feet is equal to 23.37 English inches; and the Swedish mile is equivalent to 11,700 English yards, or 6.64 English statute miles.

The Swedish navy consists at present of 11 ships of the line, 8 large and 5 small frigates, 47 sloops, brigs and schooners, and 477 gun-boats. The number of persons connected with the navy is 23,160.

The standing army consists of 2,700 men of the artillery,

4,705 of the cavalry, and 25,409 of the infantry: in all 32,814 men. Of these 32,814 men, 5,900 are enlisted troops, and 26,914 are what are called *indelta* troops. These latter are so named from a Swedish word which signifies "to divide," and has reference to a manner of raising and sustaining a military force which is peculiar to Sweden. It is this: each district is required to furnish a certain number of soldiers, in proportion to its population, and to make provision for their support. This is done by setting apart a small piece of ground of a few acres, sufficient to support a family, and to maintain some cows, sheep, &c. There must be a convenient house upon this little property, in which the soldier lives and cultivates his farm, when he is not called away by his military duties. In time of peace he is only required to spend a few weeks, every year, in camp and in military exercises. In war, he must, of course, be all the time with his regiment; and in his absence his little farm and family are taken care of by his neighbors, who are required to attend to this service, which is apportioned among them and regulated by law. Nor is this confined to the land forces; the same system is pursued in reference to the support, at least of a portion, of the seamen, who are maintained by districts along the coasts. The *indelta* system of Sweden was invented and brought partially into operation by Gustavus Adolphus, a man, who, of all modern warriors, seems to have possessed the greatest genius for military affairs. It was he who brought the light musket into use, with the bayonet attached to the side, in place of the old matchlock and the long spear. He invented ball-cartridges, cartridge-boxes, flint-locks, and introduced the formation of troops in lines of three ranks, instead of nine. All things considered, we are inclined to think him the most extraordinary military genius of modern

times. He did wonders with the slender resources of so poor and thinly populated a country as Sweden.

Besides the enlisted and indelta troops, which constitute the regular army of Sweden, there is a body of about 95,000 militia, who are required to assemble and perform drill-service certain days every year. The total amount of the military force of every description in the United Kingdom, including seamen, was estimated, in 1833, at 166,400 men.

There is a beautiful custom in the Swedish army of assembling the men for morning and evening prayers. After the roll has been called, and other returns have been made, a soldier or officer is called out, who repeats the Lord's Prayer, and then they all unite in singing a hymn. The men stand with their hats off, attending with apparent devoutness to the service, which lasts 15 or 20 minutes. The same thing, we are told, occurs on board of many of the Swedish ships of war. Even in many of the merchant ships, the men are, morning and evening, assembled for prayer, and for the singing of a hymn. The practice is a very beautiful one, though it is to be feared that it is often too formal to be as profitable as it ought to be. It is a remnant of the good customs which Gustavus Adolphus introduced in the Thirty Years' war.

We have said that Sweden is a poor country. It is so. Indeed, the quantity of good, cultivateable land in the entire Scandinavian Peninsula is very small. The greatest portion of the whole surface is covered with rocks, mountains, swamps, lakes and fiords; and the climate of the northern part of this peninsula is truly hyperborean. Consequently, the summers are too short to admit of a profitable cultivation of the ground, and the winters too long and too cold for the carrying on of any manufacturing or other employments. The entire arable land of

Sweden is estimated to be only 3,480 English square miles, (or 2,227,200 acres); the pasture land is 7,350 square miles, (or 4,704,000 acres); whilst the forests cover a surface of 137,420 square miles. The number of families which are considered to be proprietors of the soil, is estimated at 320,000, comprising 923,000 individuals; and the number of laborers, who are not proprietors, but sustain themselves by laboring for other persons, is reckoned at 2,067,000, or seven-ninths of the whole population. This is owing to the fact that in Sweden, where the summers are so short, a larger number of hands is requisite for carrying on agricultural labors than with us. In some parts of Sweden there is too great a subdivision of the land. This is the case, particularly, in Dalecarlia. The government has even been compelled to adopt laws to prevent or restrain this propensity to divide and subdivide, until the farms become too small to support a family. Formerly Sweden did not raise enough of grain to support her population. It is not so at present, in seasons of ordinary propitiousness. On the contrary, some grain, especially oats and barley, is exported to other lands—England, France, and Holland—when the harvests are short in those countries. In addition to the limited extent and churlish nature of the soil, the shortness of the summers, and the severity of the winters, there is one cause of poverty in Sweden which may strike with astonishment the minds of some of our readers; it is the ravages of wild beasts. In 1827, the number of domestic animals, such as reindeer, horses, cows, sheep, hogs and goats, which were thus destroyed, was 36,613, the value of which was estimated at 131,091 rix dollars, or nearly 49,159 American dollars. Forsell states the number of opulent families in Sweden in 1820, to be 11,512; those in easy circumstances, 154,324; in indigence, 238,910; in absolute poverty, 78,489. It is

not to be supposed that such calculations can ever be strictly correct; but they give some idea of the state of the country, as it regards the relative distribution of wealth. According to this view, one half of the Swedes may be called poor, and nearly every fifth person is unable to support himself. Of this latter class, 9,240 were inmates of poor-houses, institutions which, in the opinion of the able author above mentioned, tend to promote the very evil which they are designed to alleviate.

The Swedes are not equal, we are inclined to think, in industry and energy to the Norwegians. They are a light-hearted, pleasure-loving, pleasure-enjoying people. The dissipation of the lower classes in many parts of the country, especially in autumn, when the farmers distil their rye and potatoes, is very unfavorable to their temporal, as well as their moral and religious interests; for every proprietor is allowed to distil a quantity of spirit proportionate to the extent of land which he cultivates. The consequence is that very many small farmers have a sort of family distillery on their farms, by which they are enabled to distil in a few weeks, in the autumn, the amount of their produce which they are allowed to convert into brandy. Their neighbors, too, often come in to help them in these operations; and the consequence is that the period of distillation is a time of great dissipation and other vice in many parts of the country. It is estimated that there are at present about 120,000 distilleries, great and small, in Sweden alone.

We were much surprised to learn that the custom of taking a *siesta*, or a nap of an hour or two, after dinner, is so prevalent in Sweden, especially in the cities and towns. We suppose that this habit has been occasioned, in part, by the length of the days about midsummer. But it is certainly neither necessary, nor consistent with the energetic conduct of affairs. The recent coming in of the Jews

at Stockholm, and two or three other cities, and their being allowed to open shops for doing certain sorts of retail business, have changed the habits of some of the Swedish shop-keepers, in this respect. They cannot now shut up their shops at noon for the purpose of not only eating their dinners, but also of taking their siesta, as they formerly did. Were they to do so, the active, enterprising, industrious Israelites would soon draw their customers away from their establishments. A Swedish naval officer assured us that when an American ship arrives at Stockholm, her captain will get his papers properly through the custom-house, his vessel unloaded, reloaded, hauled-out of the harbor, and ready to sail again, in about one half of the time which a Swedish captain would require to do the same thing. Of this we can affirm nothing from personal knowledge; we merely state what we have heard asserted, upon what we deemed good authority.

There are four orders of knighthood in Sweden: those of the Seraphim (a splendid name at any rate), the Polar Star, the Sword, and Gustavus Wasa. The first is said to have charge of the hospitals and other establishments of beneficence; the second comprises, we believe, chiefly literary men; the third is military; and the fourth has relation to the encouragement and promotion of the useful arts. All such things foster the love of distinction and titles which is said to characterize the people of this country, as it does the inhabitants of Denmark, Russia, Germany, &c. We do not pretend to give an account of the various titles which prevail in society here. Indeed, this is so intricate a subject that we have despaired of ever mastering it unless by a residence of some years. At any rate, we are sure it would require a long time for us to learn the language of etiquette on this subject. Even among the ladies of the various ranks, there are several titles which it is not easy for a foreigner, especially a simple republi-

can, to learn to apply with due discrimination. There are *Madame* and *Ma'mselle*, which are equivalent to Madam and Miss, but are to be applied, we take it, to persons in the middle, or rather the mechanic, classes; there are *Fru* and *Fröken*, which correspond with My Lady married, and My Lady unmarried, with us,—what do we say?—with the English—we have no Ladies in that sense. And then, if we go down a little, we come to Jungfru, which is not so honorable as *Ma'mselle*; and last and lowest of all we have *Flicka*, which means a simple girl of all work. Yohanna and Mariä, the servant girls on board our steam-boat, were Flickas. We do not think it would do to call a maid who attends the bar in a hotel a *Flicka*. She must be called *Yongfru* at least—perhaps *Ma'mselle*. But enough of this. We have tried to state the case accurately. But if any of our readers should ever go to Sweden, and find that we have misled him, he must not be at all surprised; for the subject is one of vast intricacy, and ever since we undertook to study the fourteen ranks or classes of the Russian nobility, and got our brains confused in the task, we have involuntarily shrunk from seriously taking up this matter again, in any country.

CHAPTER XVII.

VOYAGE IN FINLAND.

Last few days spent in Sweden—Meeting in the Exchange at Stockholm—Address before the House of Peasants—Departure—Voyage to Finland—Åland Islands—Arrival at Åbo—Description of that city—Once the capital of Finland—Observatory of Åbo—Notices of Finland—Its extent and geographical features—Its productions—Its commerce—The Fins—Their origin and language—Their character and their moral and religious condition—Education in Finland—University—History of Finland—Conquest of the country by the Russians—Present form of Government—Our fellow passengers—A great man of Finland—His ideas respecting the Temperance cause—Apogee of Drunkenness—Voyage along the coast of Finland—Arrival at Helsingfors—Fortress of Sveaborg—City of Helsingfors—University—Observatory—Governor's Palace—Kind attentions from his Excellency the Governor—Visit to the Prison—Botanical Garden—Environa—Departure for Revel.—End of our tour in Scandinavia.

SEPT. 1840.—At length the time arrived for our leaving Sweden, which we did with some degree of pensiveness, for we had made many acquaintances, and found very dear friends in the capital as well as in other places in the kingdom. The last few days of our stay were spent in Stockholm, and were taken up in making final calls upon those whose acquaintance we had formed, and in attending public meetings for the promotion of Temperance and other objects. One of these was a meeting of some 1,500 or 2,000 gentlemen, held in the Exchange, at which general addresses were delivered on the subject of Temperance Societies. It was the second meeting of the kind which was held in the capital. The first occurred a day or two before our visit to the north of Sweden. Mr. Hartmannsdorff, President of the Swedish Temperance Society, presided on the former occasion ; on the latter, Arch-

bishop Wingård was in the chair. These were among the most interesting Temperance meetings which it has ever been our privilege to attend. It was truly delightful to see how this good cause is gaining ground in this kingdom, through the efforts of some of the greatest and best men in it.

On the last day of our stay at Stockholm we were invited to deliver an address on this subject before the House of Peasants. This we did—and were heard with much apparent interest, whilst we gave a brief history of the progress and effects of the Temperance Reformation in our country. But, it was not in our power to comply with the request of the House of the Clergy to deliver an address, ~~on~~ the same subject, before that body. This was done for us, the next day, by Mr. Wieselgren.

At eleven o'clock at night, having bid adieu to all our friends, we embarked on board the steam-boat *Storfursten*, for Finland and Russia. The next morning, at four o'clock, our steamer quitted the wharf, which lies in front of the Palace, just as the sun was beginning to illumine the east. In a few moments we were on our way down the bay, which leads to the Baltic. The day had fairly dawned; and the view of the city, and especially of the central portion of it, rising up, as it does, to a considerable elevation, and crowned by the Palace, whose white walls began to reflect the first rays of the sun, was exceedingly beautiful. In a little while, however, the panoramic vision gradually disappeared, by reason of the passage of our boat behind some of the many islands which crowd the bay, at the distance of a few miles from the city; and at length we lost all trace of Stockholm, except as retained on the tablets of the mind, and were speeding our way to Finland.

At the distance of twelve miles from Stockholm we came to Wexholm, which is a strong fortress, situated on an island, and commands the approach by water to the

capital. Here we were detained a little while, until the requisite examination was made by the Custom House officers, to ascertain that everything was in order. This important point having been settled, we had leave to pursue our voyage. This continued through an almost endless succession of islands, until at length we fairly emerged from the island-belt which encircles the Swedish coast, and for a while had a clear sea before us.*

But after having passed some twenty miles in which scarcely an island or an islet was visible, we entered the Aland group, which stands in the very middle of the entrance into the Gulf of Bothnia. Through these islands we threaded our way, sometimes passing through what seemed to be considerable lakes, and at other times what resembled small ponds, surrounded by islands, some of which consisted of bare rocks, of no great elevation, whilst the most of them are covered with low pine forests, and some are inhabited. We stopped a few moments at one or two small villages, or rather military stations, for the purpose of receiving passengers, or for taking in wood.

These islands, which are called the Aland-(or Oland,

* This portion of our voyage carried us through a scene which made a very vivid impression on our minds in the month of June, 1836. In that month it was, during our first visit to the North, that we attempted to go by steam-boat from Stockholm to Abo and St. Petersburg. We embarked on board the little steamer "Solide,"—which by the way was a sad misnomer—in fine spirits. But in the midst of these islands we broke our machinery, and were, after the loss of two or three days, compelled to return to Stockholm, whence we afterwards sailed for Lübeck, abandoning, for the time, the hope of seeing Russia. On this occasion we were accompanied by Mr. and Mrs. M. and their little daughter, of Philadelphia. They were dear friends, in whose society we found ample consolation for our apparent misfortune. A few months afterwards Mrs. M. ended her days on earth at Paris,—a most lovely woman and greatly esteemed by all who knew her.

as the word is pronounced) group, belong at present to the Russians, who keep a large military force in them at all times. They once belonged to Sweden, and the possession of them by her powerful neighbor exposes her to great danger; for the most western Russian post on these islands is scarcely twenty-five miles from her coasts. Hence it will be no very difficult thing for the Russians to pass over in time of war, and ravage those coasts, as they did in 1721. We were assured by the captain of our steam-boat, that there is most indubitable evidence that these islands are gradually rising, and that new ones are from time to time peering above the water.

At length we emerged from this group, and in the course of the night, or rather towards the morning, we entered the zone of islands which stretches along the entire coast of Finland. As we lost some hours in the darkest portion of the night, when it was not safe to continue on our voyage in the narrow channels which lie between these islands, it was not until eight or nine o'clock in the morning that we reached Abo, (or Obo, as it is pronounced) the former capital of Finland.

This is an ancient city of about 12,000 inhabitants which stands on a small river, of not more than sixty yards in width, and about three miles from its mouth. Our steam-boat proceeded up almost to the bridge which spans the river, nearly in the centre of the city. We have said that this city is an ancient one. But it has the appearance of being modern, and in fact it may be said to be so in one sense, most of its houses having been built since the fire which swept away almost the entire town about thirty years ago. It is owing to this fact that it has no longer the appearance of a Swedish or Finnish city, but is Russian in its wide streets, and its long yellow houses, built of brick and stuccoed. The river meanders not a little through the city, and yet the

streets are made to run at right angles to each other. A large number of the houses are well built. But as many lots of ground are unoccupied, the city has the appearance of being more extensive than one would expect from the smallness of its population.

As the Storfursten remained here an entire day, we had ample time to explore the city and its environs. The former contains but few objects of interest,—indeed nothing but a large old Cathedral, built of dingy bricks, about whose towers plenty of rooks were constantly flying, and a famous observatory, which stands on the southern side of the city on a high hill composed wholly of rocks. We ascended to it, and had from its top a very fine view of the city, and of the country around, far and wide. The environs consist of a few fields, of limited extent, amidst a comparatively level country, whose surface is covered with rocks, small pines and other trees. Look where you may, east, west, north or south, the panorama is the same, monotonous, rocky waste, through which the little river which divides Abo, wends *its* way to its ocean-home.

The rocks around this city are remarkable in their appearance. They are of granite and gneiss, of a reddish aspect; in the latter of which are imbedded not inconsiderable masses of granular hornblende and other species of rock, giving the whole a most variegated and beautiful appearance.

Finland is a large country, extending from $59^{\circ} 48'$, north lat., to $70^{\circ} 6'$; and from $38^{\circ} 50'$ of east long., to $50^{\circ} 2'$. Its superficial area is estimated to be 135,000 square miles. In fact, it is not much less in extent than Sweden, of which kingdom it once formed a constituent part. The population was, in 1837, 1,410,394 souls. Different parts of it were ceded to Russia, at different times. A large portion of the eastern division was ob-

tained by that Power, by the treaty of Abo, in 1743. But it was at the Peace of Frederiksham, that the central and northern parts of the country were yielded up by Sweden, with the whole territory along the eastern coast of the Gulf of Bothnia, including Torneå, at the head of that gulf.

The country is very uneven in the middle and northern parts, and more level in the southern and eastern. But scarcely any of it can be called mountainous, inasmuch as the hills of granite, and other primitive rocks, which abound almost every where, are not large enough to merit that name. At the same time, it must be stated, that there are spurs and ranges of the Scandinavian mountains of considerable altitude, which reach into the northern part of the country. There are five principal rivers, of which the Kymmene is the most important. A great portion of the surface is wholly unfit for cultivation; yet there are some parts which are fertile, and produce grain, flax, potatoes, and such other vegetables as grow in northern climates. But, as in Sweden, the land which is fit for grazing is more extensive than that which is arable. The forests abound in wolves and bears, which annually destroy thousands of horses, cattle, sheep, goats, and hogs. Hunting and fishing are the chief occupations of many of the Finns. The population is densest on the coasts; whilst the interior is very thinly peopled. Some parts are without inhabitants, and others incapable of supporting a dense population, on account of the extreme cold. There are many lakes in this country, and a great deal of low, swampy land, in places, with rocks interspersed, which are covered with low forest trees—pine, birch, hemlock, and various sorts of underwood; whilst the island-bound coasts, like those of Sweden and Norway, abound in fiords and projecting headlands.

Finland has been constituted into a Grand Principality,

or Duchy, by the Russians, and has a Senate, composed of sixteen members, called counsellors, who have great influence in the government of the country. Instead of one governor-general, there are now four governors, each of whom has his respective district or province. Finland enjoys her own laws, and all her rulers are natives of the country. There is a separate department in the general government of Russia for Finland, at the head of which is a minister, who is also a native of the principality, and resides perpetually at St. Petersburg. The general impression, however, among the Finns is, that Russia is steadily aiming at, and bringing about, a greater consolidation of its widely extended provinces, and consequently, a more perfect absorption of them in its vast central action and control. And they say, that every year Russian influence is encroaching upon the Finnish, in their country, and they dread its ultimate and exclusive prevalence.

The climate of Finland is cold, but is not considered unhealthy. The chief diseases seem to result from bad and insufficient food, in the north especially, and in the want of comfortable houses. As a general statement, it must be said that the people are poor. They have the reputation of being amiable, patient, and industrious. They resemble very greatly the Swedes, in their appearance, customs, and manners. The language of the mass of the people is the Finnish; whilst the inhabitants of the towns and cities on the coasts mostly speak the Swedish. There are, however, not a few Germans in some places on the coast of the Gulf of Finland. The Swedish language is used in all government transactions, and in the higher schools, and the University. There is one exception to this statement—at Wiborg, where, on account of the great number of Germans, the public affairs are transacted in the German language. There are at present nearly 40,000 Russians in Finland, and the number is gradually increasing.

The Finns along the coasts are not wanting in enterprise. Their fiords and bays, as well as their little rivers and lakes, are favorable to commerce. Accordingly, we find that they have a very extensive trade with Russia, on the one hand, and Sweden on the other. They are excellent seamen; and it is from Finland that Russia obtains the greatest number of her most valuable sailors. The trade between Finland and Sweden is still quite extensive. Indeed, the markets of Stockholm itself are mainly supplied with vegetables and other articles of food from Finland, which are brought over in hundreds of Finnish sloops, and other craft.

With the exception of the 40,000 Russians who reside in Finland, and one German Reformed congregation, at Wiborg, the whole of the inhabitants belong to the Lutheran church. The Finns, like the Swedes, the Norwegians, and the Danes, were for ages, pagans, and cultivated the same rites which their Scandinavian neighbors did. But in the twelfth century, St. Erik introduced Christianity into their country, or rather, with sword in hand, compelled them to embrace what he called the Gospel. When Sweden received the Reformation, through the influence, in a great degree, of Gustávus Wasa, in the first half of the sixteenth century, Finland also received it. In 1642, the Bible was translated into the Finnish language.

What the precise number of the Lutheran clergy in Finland is, we cannot say. In the government documents that relate to this subject, as in Sweden and Norway, all the teachers and professors are included in one category, and the sum which the government grants for the support of religious worship, is united also with that which goes to the support of the Public Schools, the Gymnasia, and the University. The entire corps of ministers, professors, and school-teachers, which the Finnish government maintained, two or three years ago, was about 3,100.

The clergy, properly so called, is probably about 900. As in Sweden, the country is divided into parishes, some of which are very large, especially those in the extreme north, where the Finnish Laplanders live. Several of these parishes have more than one place of worship, and besides a pastor, there are in many instances assistant-pastors. Above the pastors are Deans and Bishops ; and over all is an Arch-bishop. The character of the Finnish clergy is very much like that of the Swedish. Whilst there are some truly pious and excellent men, there are many who, though very interesting and agreeable and well-educated, have but little zeal, and whose preaching is far from being such as it should be. Nothing but a heartfelt sense of the need of a Saviour, and a soul filled with the love of the work of saving men, will render a pastor efficient anywhere. Great and laudable efforts are now making to supply the people with the Scriptures. And although schools are far from being universally established in Finland, yet, for causes which we mentioned when speaking of the other Scandinavian countries, the people, almost without exception, know how to read with more or less facility ; and the greater part can write. There are several Gymnasias and High-schools in the principality, which are well sustained.

The state of morals in Finland does not differ much from that in Sweden. The same vices essentially prevail, because the manners and customs exist which generate them. There is the same amount of drunkenness, because there is about the same extent of distillation. As the Russian government has given permission to publish a History of the Temperance Societies, it is to be hoped that the same good work which has been so auspiciously commenced in Sweden, will begin and make progress in Finland also.

Under the laws which the Russian government has

laid down as the basis of the internal regulation of affairs in Finland, the following points are secured. 1. Personal liberty except in case of crime. 2. The right of property. 3. Religious liberty, and perfect toleration. 4. Right of petitioning the Emperor, both in public and private matters. 5. No persons to hold public offices, who are not members of the Lutheran, the German Reformed, or Russian Church.

The inhabitants are divided into Nobles, Ecclesiastics, Burgesses, and Peasants or Farmers.

Something has been done in the way of internal improvements. There are four canals in Finland. The roads are becoming better made, and something is doing towards draining the marshes, and improving the agriculture.

The manufactures are chiefly domestic, as in Sweden.

There is a Society to encourage the study of Botany, &c., in Finland; one to promote Finnish Literature; and a third to advance Belles-Lettres studies.

There is a rigid censorship in Finland, which forbids the publication of anything which opposes the true evangelical religion; or in other words, the Lutheran Church; speaking evil of the Emperor, the General Government or the laws; the printing and circulating of that which corrupts the morals of the people; and the uttering of private scandal.

The military force which Finland keeps up, amounts to 12,400 men, besides 500 seamen. The administration of justice is wholly according to the laws of Finland. As in Sweden, there is no trial by jury, properly so called. There is a sort of National Bank, which is said to be a useful institution and in a good state.

Every parish is required to take care of its own poor. And to guard against famine, the government has large magazines of grain established in different parts of the country, from which the wants of the people may, in

times of famine, be relieved, by the payment of a reasonable price, or gratuitously, in case of extreme poverty.

What is called the Finnish race is quite extensive, embracing not less than twelve or fourteen tribes, and spreading over the extreme northern parts of Europe, and a portion of Asia. Their number is estimated at 2,400,000 souls. Tacitus speaks of them under the name of the Fenni. They are of Asiatic origin, and spreading over the northern region, where they have since lived, they drove the aboriginal inhabitants, of whom the present Laplanders are the remains, to the most remote and inhospitable regions. With the Laplanders they have in some cases intermarried and associated. But, as a general thing, they are quite distinct from them.

The Finns are characterized by flat countenances, with sunken cheeks, dark-grey eyes, a thin beard, brownish-yellow hair, and a swarthy complexion. They are of a small size, but robust. They have never had a national or independent existence to any considerable extent. The Norwegians in the ninth, tenth and eleventh centuries, conquered them from the northwest, until they were driven back by the Russians from the east. The Swedes conquered them from the west, and held for a long time what is now called Finland. And finally, the Russians, in their widely spreading empire, have at length enclosed and subdued them, and now rule over all the Finnish tribes, whether found in Europe or Asia. But it is time to return from this digression.

Our steam-boat received several passengers at Abo, one of whom was a distinguished officer in the civil department of the province of which Abo is the capital. We found him a very intelligent, and, in many respects, a very interesting man. He seemed to be at home alike in the Swedish, the German and the French languages. He was going to Helsingfors, the capital of the entire Principality.

Towards the going down of the sun the steam was up, and the boiler fizzing away in great style. At length the bell rang; we all went on board, and in a few moments bade adieu to Abo and its rocks, and turned our faces first towards the south and then the east, keeping along the islands and the mainland; or to speak more correctly, threading our way the greater part of the time through the islands themselves.

We soon found that the Finnish accession to our number of passengers was altogether an agreeable one. One or two Russians were with us, on their way up to the capital of the great empire, who proved to be quite pleasant and disposed to be sociable. The evening passed away smoothly for a while. But at length a storm was well nigh getting up; we do not mean without, but within our steam-boat. Some of our young Swedes, who are great smokers, not content with having the whole deck, and the forward cabin, too, if they wished it, for their favourite enjoyment, wished to invade the chief cabin also. To this we took the liberty of objecting decidedly. Our opposition accomplished its object, and we were not troubled with the smoke of either cigar or pipe in our part of the vessel. But we were not a little amused at the surprise of one of the Russian gentlemen on learning that we abhorred tobacco, and yet that we had come, as he said, from the land of tobacco! We must add that all behaved with the greatest civility in the case, and showed by their conduct and their words that they were gentlemen.

The next day we pursued our journey, and passed several towns and villages, about which a number of sloops and other craft were lying. We also passed some five or six Russian frigates and sloops of war, which were cruising among these islands. About half way between Abo and Helsingfors we met the other steam-boat, the *Menschikoff*, which runs alternately with the *Storfursten*,

between Stockholm and St. Petersburg. She had left St. Petersburg at the time of our leaving Stockholm.

During this day we had a conversation of no little interest with our great man from Abo, in relation to the prevalence of drunkenness in Finland. He admitted that there was a great deal of intemperance in the country. He conceded further that it was fearfully increasing; but he maintained that nothing could be done. The revenue of the government was greatly involved in the case. When asked whether it was right in any government to raise a revenue from the vices of the people instead of their virtues, he could not deny that it was very unwise; and when asked what he would suggest as the best measure for promoting sobriety among the people, he frankly avowed it as his opinion, that the evil should be permitted to go on until it had reached its acmé, or its "apogee", as he called it. We told him that we did not consider that man, in his downward course of vice and of sin, was like a planet, which, by the joint action of the centripetal and the centrifugal forces, is made to return from *its apogee*, or its remotest point of distance from the central body around which it revolves. No: the drunkard, left to himself, is not likely to return from the apogee to which he is tending, which, so far as this world is concerned, is often to be found in the alms-house, the prison, the asylum for the insane, in a word, at the lowest point of degradation; and in the world to come, in hell! an apogee, from which a return is utterly hopeless. Alas! how often do those who desire to be called great men, and who have never learned the true nature of benevolence, which is only to be found in the grand doctrines of the gospel, when received into the heart, utterly fail in providing a remedy for the most flagrant of evils. Vast numbers think, with this distinguished Finn, that all evils are to be allowed to go on to their worst, if that worst state is ever to be found.

If the world depended for its moral renovation upon such men, there would be no hope.

At length we arrived at Helsingfors, a new city, which a few years ago was a most insignificant village. It has sprung up chiefly since it was made the seat of government. It stands on a peninsula, in a fine bay. Its site is not entirely level—and it is surrounded by rocks, and a country which is almost as great a waste as that which lies around Abo. The streets are wide, and laid out at right angles with each other. Several of the public buildings here, such as the Senate House, the Governor's House, the University, the Observatory, and a new church, are large and handsome. The University and the Senate House stand on the opposite sides of an open square, or Place. The chief hall, or amphitheatre for conferring degrees, and for other meetings of all the students, is the finest room of the kind which we have ever seen. It is almost semi-circular, and the seats rise all around, one above another, ascending from the platform which stands on the side which subtends, or is opposite to, the arc of the semi-circle. This University House is a new building, and was dedicated to the cause of learning only last year, upon the occasion of celebrating the second centennial anniversary of the founding of this institution.

This University was established by Christina, Queen of Sweden, in the year 1638, at Abo. It was removed to Helsingfors in 1827, from Abo, upon the almost total destruction of that city by fire, in which the University, together with part of its library, fell a prey to the flames. Its present title is—*UNIVERSITAS ALEXANDREA IMPERIALIS*. The number of students is about 600, of whom nearly 150 are students in theology. There are several professors in the institution who are reckoned men of superior talents and acquirements.

We arrived at Helsingfors in the evening. The next morning, his Excellency, the Governor of the District of which that city is the capital, had the goodness to send his Secretary, to show us the prison, in which are confined a large number of convicts, many of whom have committed great crimes. We know not when we have seen so many men of such ferocious appearance. They had risen against their keepers only a short time previous to our visit. They seemed to us to need to be arranged differently, and to be brought under the simple, and earnest, and kindly instruction of the Gospel. We were astonished to see as many as six and eight persons shut up in one room, having nothing to do but to corrupt one another. Most of them will, probably, be sent to Siberia; and it would certainly be a mercy to send them all there, and set them to work on farms, or even in the mines, rather than permit them to live as they do here. We were truly glad when we finished the exploration of this horrible place. The system is all wrong. The keepers and visitors of this prison appear, however, to be humane men, and disposed to do all they can; but they cannot overcome the inherent evils of the system upon which the prison is established.

The traveler, on arriving at Helsingfors, feels that he is indeed in a Russian city. There is one architectural symptom of it that never deceives; viz., the houses are not only long, and generally white or yellow, and covered with sheet iron, painted brown or green, but there is no door in front. They must be entered by going through a gate, which is at the end of the house, into a yard, whence you find a way into the house. This mode of constructing houses certainly arose where there was not that security which prevails now in all well-governed countries.

After having visited the very pleasant Botanical Garden

of this city, the Observatory, and all the other interesting localities, and bidden adieu to our young friend, the Secretary of the Governor, and two or three other very pleasant people whose acquaintance we had made, we went on board our steam-boat, at noon, and found her just on the point of leaving. In a few moments we turned our backs upon this pleasant little city, and sailed down its delightful bay, leaving, on our right, the Fortress of Sveaborg, which stands on seven contiguous islands, and is an exceedingly strong place. Of this every thing about it gives convincing evidence. It has quarters for 12,000 troops, and 8,000 are now actually in the garrison. A great number of cannon are planted here, many of which are protected by the natural granite rock, or rather are placed in chambers cut in the rocks on which the fortress stands. It is called the "Gibraltar of the North;" and it is so strong, that the Russians say that they were obliged to fill their cannon with gold ducats, before they could take it! We are inclined to believe them; for nothing but the most astounding corruption and bribery could ever have opened this place to them, as it was when the Swedes surrendered it. The portion of the fortress which is called the Sword of Gustavus is impregnable to any thing, except gold and famine. It defends the only entrance for heavy ships.

We were soon fairly beyond this fortress, and out on the broad expanse of the Gulf of Finland. The day was most beautiful; the sun was pouring down his brightest rays. Our course was due south, and, consequently, directly across that fine sheet of water, which is here about fifty miles wide. We stood gazing back on the white houses of Helsingfors, and the low fortress of Sveaborg, until there was nothing left of them but a little streak in the northern horizon: when, turning to the south, we

saw the spires of Revel, and the highest portion of that city peering up, as it were, out of the waves of the sea. To that ancient German city our steam-boat was hastening, and we had already measured half of the way. And here our visit to Scandinavia terminates; for we are now about to enter the great empire of Russia.

CHAPTER XVIII.

CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS ON THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES.

A FEW general observations respecting the Scandinavian nations may form a not inappropriate close to this work.

1. The reader who has taken the trouble to follow us through the pages of this work, has probably been surprised, as we certainly were upon visiting these countries, to find so great an amount of literature and science in Scandinavia. We had known, as every one does, who has any just claims to be considered even moderately well informed, that there were men of learning, as well as of talent, in Denmark and Sweden. But we were not aware, we confess it, that so great a number of scholars, and ripe ones also, was to be found in those countries. We do not believe that any other countries in the world, of a proportionate population, have developed so much talent, and so much literary enterprise, as both Denmark and Sweden have done during the last fifty or sixty years. It is perfectly astonishing to find so many able authors, in almost every department of learning, and so many distinguished artists in every branch of the fine arts, as now reflect honor upon both the great members of the Scandinavian Family of Nations. And in speaking of Denmark and Sweden, under this view, we must associate with each its proper satellite or dependency, viz. Norway with the former, and Finland with

the latter. For neither of these countries possesses a literature of its own, but each depends upon that country whose language and literature prevail in it ; and Norway gives extension and encouragement to the literature of Denmark, as Finland does to that of Sweden. But even with the addition of their dependencies, neither of the chief portions of the Scandinavian nations furnishes a large field for literary enterprise. As to Denmark, we must leave out of view Holstein, Sleswic and Lauenburg, for in them the German language and literature prevail. And if we add the Norwegians to the proper Danish population of the kingdom, we do not have an entire population of more than two millions and a half, at the utmost, which speaks and reads the Danish language. On the other hand, the great majority of the Finns neither speak nor read Swedish. But granting that about 400,000 do, which we apprehend is a very large estimate, and adding that number to the 3,125,000 of the inhabitants of Sweden, we shall have about three millions and a half for the entire population which reads the Swedish language. This statement shows the respective sources of encouragement, upon which the Danish authors on the one hand, and the Swedish on the other, have to depend. And yet, under these circumstances, the kingdoms of Denmark and Sweden have produced a very large number of elegant scholars and most able writers ; and they possess, at the present moment, Historians, Poets, Antiquarians, and authors on other subjects, who are not surpassed by those of any other country. If the Danish and Swedish languages were as widely diffused as the French, the German, and the English,—each of which is spoken by from thirty-eight to forty-five millions, and read by many more,—the names of Oehlenschläger, Tegner, Geijer, Franzen and others, would not be less known than those of Göethe, Chateaubriand, Scott and Byron. And as to

the Fine Arts, what country has produced greater artists than Thorvaldsen, Lund, Dahl, Byström, Fogelberg, and Sergel? Whilst in one science, the name of Berzelius stands absolutely without a rival.

2. It is striking to observe the ameliorations which have been made in the political, civil, physical and even—though in a less degree—moral condition of these countries, within the last half century.

As to the first named subject, Norway has taken the lead in the most decided manner. The work of her political regeneration has advanced far. She is now a free country, in the true meaning of that term. She makes and executes her own laws, almost without the slightest hinderance; and she is prosperous and happy beyond all the others. Her example is exerting a powerful influence; on the one hand to rouse up the Danes to demand a constitutional government, and on the other to stimulate the Swedes to seek for a great renovation of theirs, which is too antiquated and too unwieldy. Much work of this kind is to be done in both Denmark and Sweden. We may anticipate good results from increasing light and inquiry and discussion; and we may also hope, that as Norway set out in her noble career, and has pursued it, without violence and without shedding a drop of blood, so the changes that time and the spirit of the age demand will also be made without revolution and bloodshed in Denmark and Sweden. The Provincial Legislatures established in the former country, by the late enlightened and benevolent monarch, may be considered as both the pledge and the commencement of better days. Much, too, may be expected, we trust, from the enlightened mind of the present king, if we may judge from what was done in Norway, under his auspices, in 1814.

Extensive ameliorations in civil affairs have been effected in all the three Scandinavian countries—Denmark, Norway

and Sweden. The establishment of Courts of Conciliation or Agreement in Denmark, has been a great advance in the administration of justice. Other beneficial changes have been made in the same kingdom. In Norway the progress in this respect has also been great. Something has been done in Sweden. A great deal remains, however, to be done in all of them. The restrictions on trades and on commerce should be removed. The taxes ought to be equally levied on all classes of the people, in proportion to their ability to bear them. All privileges and exemptions, in relation to this subject, should be abolished. Much requires to be done, also, to make all classes of men feel that they ought to maintain themselves by their own honest exertions, and not look to the state to support them. All distinctions not founded on merit should be either removed or greatly modified, and rendered less injurious. The expenses of the civil government ought to be reduced, and sinecure offices abolished. Wherever a national debt exists, let it be discharged, and the people relieved from the burden. Unnecessarily large military forces ought to be reduced to a proper standard. The liberty of the press should be established in those countries where it does not exist. Ameliorations on all these and other subjects are needed, and we hope will, with patience and proper effort, be attained, before a very great period of time passes away.

Great ameliorations have unquestionably been effected in the physical condition and resources of these nations. On this subject the governments have made most laudable efforts. Internal improvements have been carried forward to a great extent, considering the poverty of these countries and their limited resources. This has been remarkably displayed in Sweden. It is astonishing to see what has been done, in this respect, in that poor though extensive country. There is a most interesting development

on this subject in a work of Mr. Lundblad, respecting the administration of the kingdom since his present majesty came to the throne.

Something is also being effected for the moral and religious improvement of the Scandinavian nations. The distribution of the Scriptures and other religious publications has been zealously prosecuted in all these countries. Education has made progress; temperance societies are becoming established, and truth is, we believe, making gradual and sure progress. Still there are serious hindrances which impede the moral and religious improvement of the people. There is not that religious liberty which ought to prevail; the governments do not allow enough to the judgment of the people. No man should be hindered in his attempts to do good, or in the exercise of his natural right to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, provided he does nothing to injure or restrain others in the exercise of their rights. On this subject the Scandinavians are behind the most enlightened nations of the present day; and the consequence is, that they have done some things which are not creditable to them.

3. It is worthy of remark that both Denmark and Sweden have been most sadly reduced in extent of territory by the political changes which have taken place in Europe during the present century. Denmark has lost Norway; and Sweden has lost Finland. The loss has been most serious to each. It is true that Denmark has enlarged her possessions in the direction of Germany, and Sweden has received Norway, and now possesses the whole Scandinavian Peninsula. A superficial inquirer, might think that these were the very changes which ought to have taken place in order to give simplicity and unity, and prosperity, to the territory of each. This would at first sight appear just. It would seem to be very unnatural, if we may so speak, for Denmark to possess Nor-

way, and Sweden to own Finland, since in each case a sea would roll between the mother country and her distant province. But this is the theory on the subject; the fact is very far otherwise. It is easier for the Norwegians to deal with Denmark than with Sweden, for they have the highway of the ocean between them, and withal they speak the same language. On the other hand, Sweden can better have commerce with Finland than with Norway, for a narrow sea separates them, which is navigable six or seven months in the year, and withal the Finns,—at least the trading portion of them,—speak the Swedish. Commerce, and consequently national intercourse, will follow natural channels, rather than those which are artificial. On many accounts it is to be regretted that Sweden had not received Finland back, for the services which she rendered to the allies in 1813–14, or at least the northern half of it, and left Norway to Denmark, with which there were so many ties to unite her.

4. Our last observation is that it would seem desirable for all the Scandinavian countries to be brought under one good government. If that were done on the principle of letting each have its own local government,—in other words, its own legislation and administration,—with Copenhagen as the capital of the whole, and a wise consolidation of the interests of all effected, and an unrestricted commerce established between the several parts of the united kingdom, and between it and the rest of the world, it would not be long before Scandinavia would become a flourishing and powerful state. Many things invite to this consummation. The geographical position of the countries, the reciprocity of their commercial interests, the common origin of their races, the similarity of their character and religion, and the almost identity of their language—all indicate that this is the state to which they should come. And even safety would

seem to demand it. United they would form a kingdom of about six millions and a quarter of people, without including Finland, and seven and three quarters with it.

Two obstacles stand in the way of this union. One is the difference of language. This relates chiefly to the difference between the Danish and the Swedish, for the Norse or Norwegian is the same as the Danish, or at least the difference is only in pronunciation, and even that is not worth speaking of. And as to the Danish and the Swedish, they are the same in origin, and would become identical in the course of time, through intimate intercourse and some effort on the part of scholars. In very many words the difference is wholly in the spelling. The Danes and the Swedes even now can, with a little difficulty, get along in conversation, quite as well as many of the inhabitants of Wales and of the Highlanders of Scotland do with the English. We subjoin here the Lord's Prayer in both the Swedish and the Danish, in order that the reader may compare them. From this comparison he will have some idea of the difference between the two. We ought to remark that *aa* in Danish has just the sound of *o* or *å* in Swedish, whilst *ä* and *ö*, in each, have the sounds of our English *a* in paper, and our *e* as represented by the first *e* in the word *mete*.

SWEDISH.

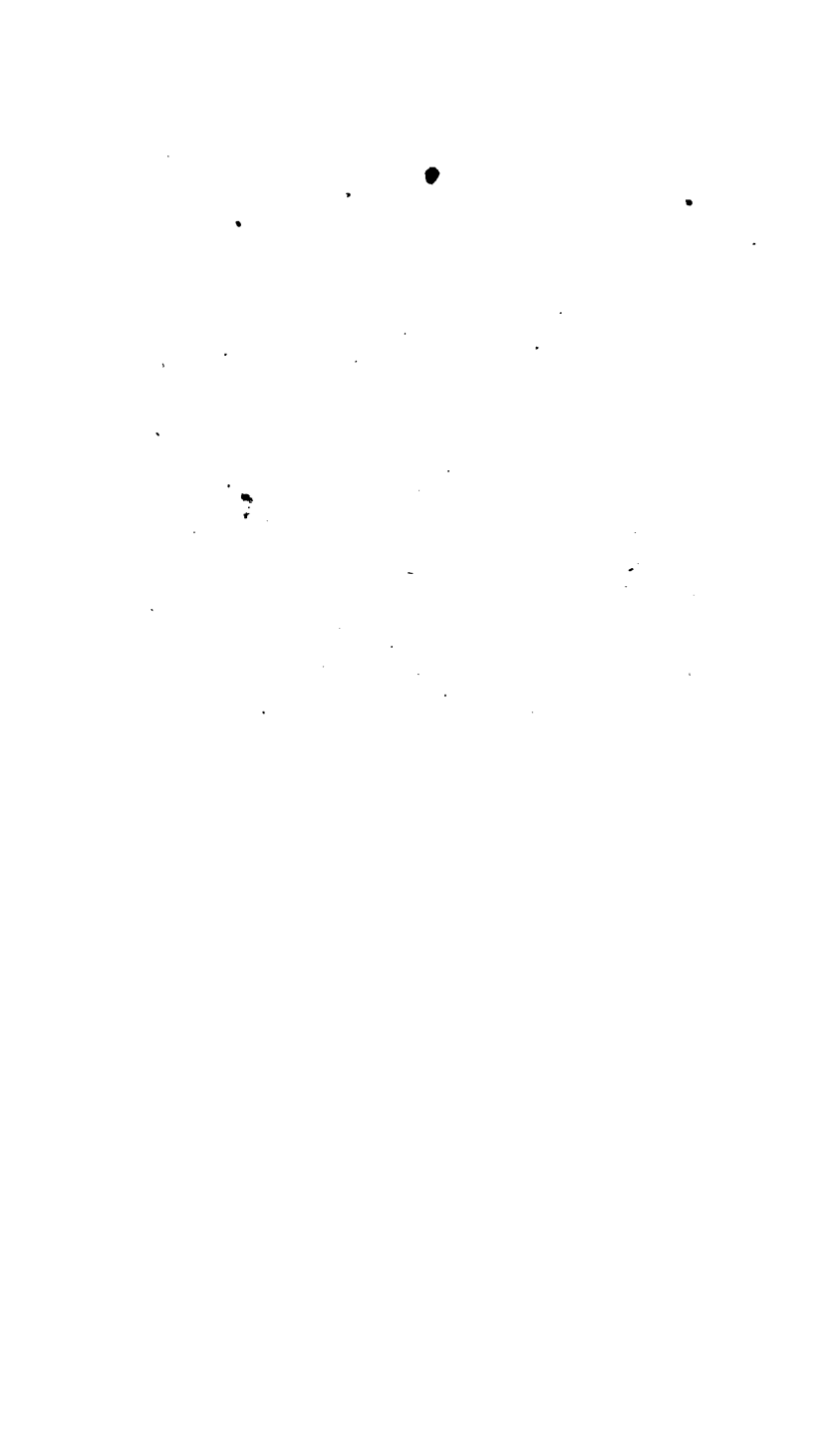
Fader vår, som äst i himlom, helgadt warde ditt Namn. Tilkomme ditt rike: Ske din wilje, såsom i himmelen, så ock på jordene. Gif oss i dag vårt dageliga bröd: och förlåt oss våra skulder såson ock wi förlåte dem oss skyldige äro. Och inled oss icke i frestelse; utan fräls oss ifrån ondo. Ty riket är ditt, och magten, och härligheten, i ewighet: Amen.

DANISH.

Vor Fæder, du som er i Himlene! Helliget worde di Navn; komme dit Rige; Skee din Villie som i Himmelen saa og paa Jorden. Giv os i Dag vort daglige Brød; og, forlad os vor Skyld, saa som vi og forlade vore Skyldnere; og lead os ikke ind i Fristelse; men frie os fra det Onde; thi dit er Riget, og Kraften, og Herligheden i Evighed: Amen.

The other obstacle is the hatred which these two nations have long entertained towards each other. This has certainly been great; nor is it eradicated yet, though it is much softened. Time would in this, as in many things else, produce a happy change, without doubt; and a free intercourse would in a century, or the half of it, do wonders, in this respect. But here our speculations must end.











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